

THE
BEAUTIES
OF
NATURE AND ART
DISPLAYED,
IN A
TOUR THROUGH THE WORLD;

CONTAINING

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| <p>I. A General Account of all the Countries in the World, remarkable for either Natural or Artificial Curiosities; their Situation, Boundaries, Extent, and Divisions; their Rivers, Air, Soil, chief Cities, &c.</p> <p>II. A particular Account of the most curious natural Productions of each Country, in the Animal, Vegetable, and Fossil Kingdoms; of remarkable Mountains, Caverns, and Volcano's; of Medicinal and other singular Springs; of Cataracts, Whirlpools, &c.</p> <p>III. An Historical Account of the most remarkable Earthquakes, Inundations, Fires, Epidemic Diseases, and other pub-</p> | <p>lic Calamities, which have, at different Times, visited the Inhabitants.</p> <p>IV. Extraordinary Instances of Longevity, Fertility, &c. among the Inhabitants; together with an Account of their most celebrated Inventions, Discoveries, &c.</p> <p>V. Particular Descriptions of the most remarkable public Buildings, and other singular Productions of Art.</p> <p>VI. Curious Remains of Antiquity; remarkable Laws, Customs, and Traditions of the Inhabitants; together with a Summary View of the most extraordinary Revolutions among them.</p> |
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B-B-A-U-T-F-U-L

NATURAL HISTORY

TOUR OF THE WORLD

THE BRITISH MUSEUM
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THE
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REVOLUTIONS, *and other* MEMORABLE
EVENTS, *continued.*

ON the 8th of February, 1635, a treaty was concluded at Paris, between Lewis XIII. and the States-general, whereby the king engaged to declare war against Philip IV. of Spain, if that prince did not make ample recompence for several grievances. The Spaniards being informed of this treaty, surprized the city of Treves on the 26th of March, and took the elector prisoner. War was now instantly declared, which lasted thirteen years, against the emperor, and twenty-five against Spain, during which time it was carried on with great vigour and various success, in Germany, Italy, and France. The duke de Valette entered Navarre in July, 1637, took Figuerro, Irone, and Port-
B 2 Passage,

Passage, in which he found twelve ships, and above an hundred pieces of cannon. The archbishop of Bourdeaux, who had orders to second him with a fleet, defeated that of Spain, which was composed of fourteen galleons, and four frigates; one only, of the latter, escaped; the rest were either taken or sunk, and on board them, five thousand veteran troops were all burnt or drowned.

The marshals de Chatillon and Melleraié had formed a project for the attack of Clermont on the Meuse; but the heavy rains rendering it impracticable, they resolved on the siege of Arras. The governor was absent when the place was invested, so that the defence was made by colonel Boyle, a Scotch officer in the Spanish service, who did all that could be expected from a gallant officer, but was at last obliged to capitulate.

On the 21st of September, 1649, the queen was delivered of a son, who had, for the present, the title of duke of Anjou. Cardinal Richelieu, apprehensive that her power would now encrease, took every precaution to be in a condition to secure himself, in case of the king's death. Mademoiselle de la Fayette, a favourite of the king, was obliged to retire from the court, by a contrivance of the cardinal, who was also jealous of her influence. Father Caussin, the king's confessor, as well as that lady's, encouraged her to intrigue against this minister, even after she had taken the veil among the
nuns

nuns of the order of the Visitation; but the cardinal discovered their intentions, and procured the banishment of Caussin.

The pope having disoblged the king, not only by ill-treatment of marshal d'Etrees, ambassador at Rome, but by violating several privileges of the French nation, began to lose much of his authority; for the king sent a letter of cachet to the parliament, directing them to signify, in his name, to the bishops and other prelates in Paris, that his majesty forbade them to have any communication with M. Scoti, nuncio-extraordinary from his holiness.

On the 1st of June following, Lewis concluded an alliance, offensive and defensive, with John IV. king of Portugal, and, by the interposition of the court, the States-general, who were invited to become contracting parties in the treaty, concluded in the mean time a truce for ten years with that prince, by which they engaged to act jointly against the Spaniards in the Mediterranean.

On the 3d of July, 1642, Mary of Medicis died at Cologne, aged sixty-eight.—In October of the same year, cardinal Richelieu made a kind of triumphal entry into Paris, and in November was carried off by an abscess in his lungs.

The king, being now deprived of his governor, as Richelieu may be justly styled, resolved

to act from himself. He recalled several persons from exile, and discharged all the state prisoners from the Bastile. But disease and infirmities began now to make him sensible that his own death was approaching; and the expectation of a regency taking place, occasioned two factions at court, one for the queen, the other for the duke of Orleans, the king's brother. Lewis was pleased with neither; but as he had reason to think, that the government could not be in worse hands than his brother's, he dismissed his confessor, the learned father Sirmond, for soliciting him to associate the duke of Orleans in the regency. At length, after mature deliberation, the king, on the 19th of April, 1643, published the form of the regency that should take place after his decease. According to this declaration, the queen was sole regent, and had the custody of the children. After it was read, and observance sworn, it was registered in parliament. He died on the 14th of May following, the day of his accession, in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign.

Lewis XIV. was not quite five years old when his father died. The parliament, notwithstanding the declaration of the late king concerning the regency, soon permitted many material alterations, inasmuch that, without formally repealing, they entirely cancelled his will in that particular. The care of the young king's education was entrusted to cardinal Mazarine, which was the foundation on which the cardinal rose
to

to such great reputation and authority. He was immediately put at the head of the queen's councils. and shared her confidence with the duke of Vendosme, and a very few others. The duke of Anguien having, at this time, gained a compleat victory over the Spaniards at Rocroi, was a means of fixing the reputation of the regency both in the eyes of the court and of the people. But jealousies among the queen's favourites soon interrupted the harmony of the state. The duke of Beaufort was so much incensed at the preference which the queen shewed to Mazarine, that there was little doubt of his meditating the cardinal's destruction; but his intentions were suspected and frustrated, his person arrested, and, with several noblemen who had sided with him, sent to the castle of Vincennes. The domestic affairs of France began now to be disturbed. The council of state had imposed a tax upon the new houses, built contrary to the edict for setting bounds to the city of Paris; upon which followed an insurrection of the people, whose cause was supported by parliament. At first, vigorous measures were proposed, but the natural moderation of Mazarine prevailed, and the queen consented to pardon the offenders.

The French armies were this year very victorious. The duke of Anguien attacked general Merci, who commanded a large body of troops, and gained a complete victory over him; and Merci, in retreating, fell into the hands of a scouting party, and was killed. Marshal Turenne

renne finished the glory of the campaign by taking Treves on the 16th of November, and restoring the elector.

In the ensuing campaign, cardinal Mazarine was determined to exert the whole power of France to humble the pope, who not only persecuted the Barbarins with unrelenting severity, but had refused a hat to the bishop of Aix, the cardinal's brother, and had even gone so far as to publish a bull, insisting on the attendance of the whole sacred college at Rome, unless exempted by his holiness's permission. But the terror of an armament soon forced pope Innocent to comply with the cardinal's terms, by which the Barbarins were restored to all they had lost, and Mazarine became the very idol of the people.

The year 1647 was not very fortunate to France, the plenipotentiaries for concluding a peace had met, and continued their conferences at Munster and Osnaburg; the catholics at the former, and the protestants at the latter.

On the 2d of October, France lost marshal de Gassion, one of her ablest officers, at the siege of Lens. He was at that time in disgrace at court, for having thrown an impertinent letter of Mazarine's on the ground, and for having justly exclaimed against the idle expences of the opera, whilst several places on the frontiers of the kingdom wanted repairs.

In

In 1648, the admirable conduct of marshal Turenne obliged the Imperialists to sign the treaty of Munster. On the 30th of January that treaty was also concluded between Spain and Holland; in consequence of which, the king of Spain renounced for himself, and for his successors, all right whatever to the United Provinces, and acknowledged them to be a free and independent state. By this peace, France was deprived of the alliance of Holland, notwithstanding the assurance this republic had given, of never entering into a separate treaty, and Spain was encouraged to make new efforts against France, whose power had been considerably weakened by the civil wars: but, on the whole, it was very honourable and favourable to the French crown. The liberty of the empire seemed to be secure, the balance between the two religions perfectly settled, and all this depended upon France for support. The great project of Richelieu, with respect to restraining the power of the house of Austria in Germany, was here most effectually executed. In our own times we have seen the spirit of this treaty revive, and French armies in the heart of the empire, invited thither by German princes.

In 1648, another civil war broke out, which was greatly promoted by the famous cardinal de Retz, a man of extraordinary abilities and prodigious vices. But the whole conduct of the malecontents was wild and ridiculous, and their troops defeated as often as they engaged. They therefore found themselves under a necessity

sity of making peace, to which the court was pretty equally inclined. On the 11th of March the treaty was concluded at Rouel, and, by the end of the month, it was confirmed and agreed to by the parliament and people. It seemed as if the spirit of rebellion had spread itself all over Europe: the English were now trying their king as a criminal, and the sultan Ibrahim was at the same time strangled by the janissaries.

The treaty was however only productive of an apparent calm in France: the parliament assembled again, under pretence that the declaration had been violated. The cardinal was forced to withdraw from court, leaving the queen in great distress. The Frondæurs had gained the duke of Orleans over to their party, and began to grow so formidable, that the king thought proper to quit his capital, and retire to St. Germain's by night, on the 6th of January, 1649. On the day after, the prince of Condé, accompanied by the duke of Orleans, formed the blockade of Paris. The court had retreated to a little town named Gergaut, with a very small number of troops about the king's person. They were scarce arrived there, when the duke of Beaufort, who had taken the opportunity offered him by these disturbances, to escape out of prison and join the malecontents, took post on the opposite side of the river Loire, and began to attack the bridge. Marshal Turenne happened to be there, and the court was saved by his conduct and resolution. He took only two hundred men with him, unprovided with ball

ball or with powder, posted them at the houses adjoining to the bridge, ordered the barrier to be thrown open, and advancing with his sword drawn, called to his troops with a loud voice, not to fire till they came close to the enemy. The rebels were so much alarmed at the nature of this attack, that, instead of giving battle, they chose rather to barricade. But marshal Hocquincourt, coming up with the guards, attacked the barricade, killed their commander Sirot, and dispersed the troops. In August, however, a general act of indemnity was passed, in which all the chiefs of the rebel party were included; and, on the 18th of that month, their majesties returned to their capital in triumph. Cardinal Mazarine was still absent, and the queen could not imagine the royal authority thoroughly established without him; she therefore sent a strong escort to bring him from Sedan to Paris, where he was cordially received by the king. This great minister immediately applied himself to the restoring regularity in the government; and the remains of the rebellion were gradually extinguished throughout the kingdom, partly by treaty and partly by force.

In the year 1653, the intendants of the provinces began to exercise their authority. They were now commissioned, with the title of intendants for the administration of justice, for the police, and the revenue; which is the state of those officers to this day. On the 7th of June, 1654, the king was crowned at Rheims.

In 1655, Oliver Cromwel accepted proposals from Mazarine, and concluded a treaty with the king of France. He treated his most Christian majesty upon a footing of equality, obliged him to acknowledge his title of protector, and give notice to the fugitive king of England to quit the French territories. In the mean time marshal Turenne pursued his conquests, and opened a way to the Spanish Netherlands, by taking Landrecy and Quesnoy. The king remained with the army during the whole campaign, and assisted at the siege of St. Guilan, which surrendered on the 15th of August.

No sooner did the following season admit of taking the field, than the cardinal, in compliance with Cromwell's pressing remonstrances, ordered Turenne to make the necessary preparations for immediately laying siege to Dunkirk. The marshal saw the difficulties that would attend such an expedition, while Furnes, Bergue, and Graveline, were in the possession of the enemy. But his orders were peremptory, and he resolved to comply, relying upon his own genius to surmount every difficulty. The inhabitants of Dunkirk were soon apprised of his intentions. They therefore opened the sluices, and laid the whole country under water, as far as the lake of Bergue. On the dyke leading from thence to Dunkirk, were raised two strong forts, each garrisoned with a thousand men. The marshal, however, was not discouraged; he persisted in the enterprize, contrary to the remonstrances of his officers and friends, who
dreaded

dreaded the ruin of the army and the reputation of their general. With eight thousand men he marched into Artois, passed the Lys, and advanced towards the Colme; and when he arrived before Dunkirk, he saw the town floating, as it were, in the sea. The men were immediately set to work on the lines, forming a curve, like a crescent, round the town. At the same time, the port was blocked up by twenty English men of war. The Spaniards, observing the marshal's resolution to invest the place, thought of putting themselves in motion, in order to stop his progress. But he was determined to go out of his lines, and give them battle at all events. The English part of the army led the attack, and behaved with great intrepidity. The French battalions advanced with no less valour, and the enemy were soon thrown into confusion; while the marquis de Castlemere attacked the flank with his cavalry, by which the Spaniards were entirely broke and dispersed. About nine thousand were killed, a more considerable number were taken prisoners, and the remainder were obliged to fly for security under the cannon of Dunkirk. The day after this battle, Turenne renewed the siege with redoubled fury; the garrison though without hope of succour, made a very gallant defence for ten days longer, but at last, on the 24th of June, surrendered upon honourable terms, and Dunkirk was, according to a compact with Cromwel, put into the hands of the English.

In 1659, a treaty of peace was concluded between France and Spain, after four and twenty conferences. This was the last material transaction in Cardinal Mazarine's administration. He died in the following year, leaving behind him the character not only of the most subtle, enterprising and indefatigable, but also of the most vain, haughty and avaricious minister ever known in that or any other country. Lewis began now to pay very close attention to the affairs of government, which he had hitherto submitted to the cardinal, without controul. On the 9th of June 1660, the king's marriage was solemnized, and on the 26th of August their majesties made their public entry into Paris.

In 1662, the count d'Eftrades negotiated the restitution of Dunkirk, with the court of London, and Charles II. agreed to restore it for five millions of livres. By the same treaty, all the posts which the English possessed on the coast of Flanders, were delivered up to the French, at which the parliament of England was highly incensed, and would have sacrificed Lord Clarendon to their resentment, if he had not made a timely escape. In 1663, the academy of inscriptions and belles lettres was founded in France, as also that of painting and sculpture. The same year Lewis marched to invade Flanders, with an army of thirty-five thousand men. Turenne was the second in command upon this expedition, from whom his majesty condescended to declare his intention of learning the art of war. Furnes Armentieres, and Courtrai were taken

taken in two days, and the campaign concluded with the reduction of Lisle. In 1668, the plan was proposed for fortifying the towns he had taken; and the direction of the works committed to Vauban, the greatest engineer ever known. Every body was surprised to see places made strong in proportion as they appeared more naked and defenceless: the citadel of Lisle was constructed upon this principle, and is reputed a master-piece of fortification.

On the 7th of April 1672, war was declared against the Dutch, both by England and France; the consequence of which was, almost the immediate conquest of Holland. In October following, France and Spain came to a rupture, and Lewis was obliged to evacuate several of the vanquished towns. In 1675, Marshal Turenne opposed Montecuculli in his design in passing over the Rhine at Strasburgh; near three months were spent in marches, counter-marches, and stratagems: at length the marshal was killed by a random shot, on the 27th of July, and in him died the greatest military support of France. On the 5th of April 1677, Cambray surrendered to the king, after a siege of nine days only. The prince of Orange marched to the relief of St. Omer, and on the 11th was fought the battle of Mount Cassel, where the duke of Orleans gained a complete victory over the prince of Orange, and gave signal proofs of his valour. At this æra, lived Racine and Despereaux, to whom the king granted a pension of a thousand

crowns to encourage them to write the history of his reign.

In February 1678, the king besieged and took Ghent, after a four days siege. This place was of great importance, as it was intended for the general magazine of the allied army, till they should be in a condition to take the field. The year following, died Cardinal de Retz. In 1680, the first settlement of the French in the East Indies was secured, by confirming the acquisition of Pondicherry in 1674.

In the beginning of the next year, the king caused the harbours of Brest and Toulon to be completed, and encreased his marine with upwards of sixty thousand sailors.

In 1690, died Pope Innocent XI. an avowed enemy to France ; by whose death an end was put to the disputes between that kingdom and Rome. In 1695, happened the first imposition of a poll tax, which was however ordained to terminate at the next peace, and the ordination was strictly adhered to.

In April 1696, the allies bombarded Calais by sea, but to no purpose. In July, M. de Frontenac, governor of New France, undertook an expedition against the Iroquois, by means of which he secured Quebec and all Canada, against the incursions of those barbarians. The only transaction that passed, worthy notice at this time, in the Netherlands, was the siege of Namur. King William ventured to invest that place,

place, though by some late additional works, it was deemed almost impregnable, and was defended by count Guiscard, with a garrison of fifteen thousand men. However, on the 4th of September, after a very gallant defence, it was forced to capitulate. The coast of France was this year frequently insulted by Berkely the English admiral; several places were bombarded, but as no extraordinary damage was sustained, these exploits only shewed that England had again resumed her naval superiority.

In 1697, a peace was established over all Europe, by the treaty of Ryswick; but it was not signed till the 20th of September. With England, this treaty stipulated, that Lewis should neither dispute William's pretensions to the crown of Great Britain, nor in any shape assist the claim of James the Second his competitor. In the following year, mutual embassies were sent from all the princes of Europe. But in 1701, Lewis found himself at the eve of the most important war in his whole reign. A grand alliance was formed against him. England and Holland united, and exerted their vigour; and in the month of July, the great duke of Marlborough, took the command of the confederate army in Flanders. Lewis sent the duke of Burgundy and Marshal Boufflers to oppose him, but his judicious marches and encampments obliged the French every where to retire. In the space of a month all Spanish Guelderland was evacuated, many towns taken, and the two French commanders, to save their reputation, returned

o Versailles. The engagements at sea were no less favourable to the English.

In 1704, the emperor's affairs were on the brink of destruction, when the duke of Marlborough formed that bold military resolution, which will be the admiration of all ages, of marching to the relief of the empire with only ten thousand British infantry, and twenty-three squadrons of horse. In July, was fought the ever-memorable battle of Blenheim, where the French army was so severely defeated: officers and soldiers threw themselves into the Danube, and lost their lives in endeavouring to escape captivity. Ten thousand men were left dead on the field, and thirteen thousand were made prisoners. One hundred pieces of cannon, two hundred standards, all the French baggage, and the military chest, fell into the hands of the enemy. This was the most disgraceful and decisive loss that Lewis ever sustained. The empire of Germany was relieved, and all France thrown into the utmost consternation. These misfortunes in Germany, were, however, in some measure, alleviated by the active and prudent conduct of Vendosme, who reduced the duke of Savoy to extreme difficulties, and almost ruined his whole territories before the end of the campaign. But on the opening of the next campaign, the French were again defeated by the English general, at the battle of Ramillies, and also by prince Eugene before Turin. Upon these repeated losses, the king thought proper to recall Vendosme from Italy, and place

place him at the head of the army in the Netherlands, in conjunction with the duke of Burgundy. The battle of Oudenarde was here the next event of importance, wherein the duke of Vendosme's military talents appeared to the greatest advantage, but proved useless, in opposition to Marlborough. When the French army began to break, Vendosme alighting from his horse, flew among the ranks, called the officers by name, conjured them to maintain the honour of their country, and animated the men with his voice and example. But the whole army was soon put into confusion, and night coming on, Vendosme drew off his broken forces, towards Ghent. Having seen the army give way, he had prognosticated their defeat, and had provided a rear guard of twenty battalions to secure the retreat. In this action they lost three thousand men, had seven thousand taken prisoners, and owed the safety of the rest to the good conduct and precaution of the duke of Vendosme. The allies, pursuing their advantages, immediately invested Lisle, and the reduction of that well fortified citadel astonished all Europe. In the mean time, the English fleet in the Mediterranean, commanded by Sir John Leake, seized upon the islands of Sardinia and Minorca.

On the 11th of September, 1709, was fought the battle of Malplaquet, where twenty thousand of the confederates fell, whereas the loss of the French scarce amounted to eight thousand. At length the war began to be very burthensome

some to the English, and made them turn their eyes upon their own situation, in the midst of Marlborough's victories. A change in the ministry, and a quarrel between queen Anne and the duchess of Marlborough, soon paved the way to a general peace. On the 29th of January, 1712, the congress was opened at Utrecht. The Dutch plenipotentiaries behaved as a people forced to consent to a conference against their inclination. A spirit of war still prevailed in the United Provinces, nor was there any hopes that the deputies would change their behaviour, till Britain's expressions became resolute and peremptory. Mr. Prior was impatiently expected by the French ministers, as the angel of peace, entrusted with the queen of England's secret sentiments. But in his room, came Mr. Harley, with instructions of the greatest moment to all the powers of Europe. England, it seems, demanded security from the courts of France and Spain, that the crowns of those two kingdoms should never be united in the same person. In expectation of Philip's answer, the negotiation was suspended, this being a fundamental article, to prevent the exorbitant growth of the house of Bourbon. Lewis, in the mean time, was so desirous of a peace, that he wrote to the English ministry, with a proposal, in case of Philip's refusing to renounce his pretensions to the crown of France, to enter into such measures with the queen of England, as should be necessary to determine him, and bring on the conclusion of the treaty.

On the 12th of February, died at Versailles, Mary Adelaide, of Savoy, dauphiness, and formerly duchess of Burgundy, at the age of six and twenty years, and the dauphin survived her but six days, for he died at Marli, on the 18th of the same month, at the age of thirty. The duke of Burgundy, the eldest of the two princes whom he left behind, followed soon after, and died at Versailles, upon the 8th of March, at the age of eight years ; the duke of Anjou, the present king, was at the same time in great danger.

The war in Spain afforded nothing remarkable ; the campaign in Flanders was the only object worthy of attention ; and indeed the operations on that side contributed to forward the peace. On the 17th of July, the duke of Ormond withdrew his troops from the allied army ; a suspension of arms was proclaimed in the French and English camps ; and on the 19th of the same month, Dunkirk was put into the hands of the English, till the conclusion of a peace. The suspension of arms which had been agreed on between France, Spain, and England, was prolonged, and a like suspension was declared with regard to Portugal. Upon the 5th of November, the king of Spain renounced the crown of France for himself and his descendants ; and on the other hand, the dukes of Berry and Orleans relinquished their pretensions to Spain.

On the 11th of April 1713, the treaties between the plenipotentiaries of France, Great Britain, Savoy, Portugal, and the States General, were signed at Utrecht, while the emperor refused the terms of accommodation, and continued the war. On the 13th of July, a treaty of peace was signed between Spain, on the one hand, and Great Britain and Savoy, on the other, by which Gibraltar and Port Mahon, with the island of Minorca, were ceded to the British nation, who likewise received considerable advantages with regard to their West-India trade; and, on the 6th of March 1714, a treaty of peace was signed at Rastadt, by prince Eugene, in the name of the emperor and empire, and marshal Villars, in behalf of the king, who did not long survive these treaties, but died at Versailles, the 1st of September, 1715, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the seventy-second year of his reign, and was buried at St. Denis. He was succeeded by his grandson, Lewis XV. the present king of France, who was born the 15th of February, 1710.



C H A P. III.

Of SPAIN and PORTUGAL.

S E C T. I.

A general Account of Spain and Portugal.

SPAIN, including Portugal, which, till of late, was part of that kingdom, is situated in the south-west part of the continent of Europe, between thirty-six and forty-four degrees of north latitude, and between ten degrees west, and three degrees east longitude. The greatest length of this kingdom, reckoning from Cape Creuz, in the north-east, to Cape St. Vincent, in the south-west, is about seven hundred miles: and its greatest breadth, from Cape Finisterre, in the north-west, to Cape Palos, in the south-east, is five hundred and fifty miles,

On the north, it is bounded by the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from France; by the Mediterranean on the east and south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west.

This

This country is now divided into the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal.

Spain contains the kingdom of Galicia, the principality of Asturia, and the lordship of Biscay in the north; the kingdom of Navarre, the kingdom of Arragon, and the principality of Catalonia in the east: the kingdom of Valencia, the kingdom of Murcia, the kingdom of Granada, and the province of Andalusia, in the south; and the provinces of New and Old Castile, the kingdom of Leon, and the province of Estremadura in the middle.

The kingdom of Galicia contains the cities of Compostella, an archbishopric; Lugo, Tuy, Orenze, Mondonedo, Corunna, or the Groyne, and Betanzos; besides these cities, there is a considerable number of towns, the chief are Ferrol, Vigo, and Rivadavia.

In the principality of Asturia, which gives title to the eldest son of Spain, is the city of Oviedo only, and Santillana, a small maritime town.

Ordonna, and Fonterabia, are the only cities in the lordship of Biscay. The principal towns are Bilboa, its capital; St. Sebastian, a noted sea-port; Tolosa, Vittoria, formerly Byzantium; Port Passage, St. Andero, Laredo, and Piacentia.

In the kingdom of Navarre are the cities of Pampeluna, Estella, Olita, Tudela, Cascant, Viana, and Tafalla.

In the kingdom of Arragon are the cities of Saragossa, an archbishopric; Osoa, Jaca, Teruel, Albarasin, Taracona, Balbastro, Calatajud, Burgia Borgia, and Daroca. Besides these cities, there is a considerable number of towns, some of them not inferior to the cities in largeness and opulence.

In the principality of Catalonia, are the cities of Barcelona, Taragona, Tortosa, Lerida, Urgel, Girone, Vich, Solsona, Balaguer, and Manresa. Roses, the principal town, is very considerable for its strength, trade, and commodious harbour.

In the kingdom of Valencia, are the cities of Valencia, an ancient bishopric; Segorbe, supposed to have been the capital of the Celtiberi; Origuella, Zativa, Alicante, Denia, Gandia, and Morviedro: the principal towns are Villa Hermosa, Villareal, and Alcira.

In the kingdom of Murcia, are the cities of Murcia, Lorca, and Carthagea: the most considerable towns are Caravaca and Mula.

In the kingdom of Granada, are the cities of Granada, an archbishopric; Malaga, Almeria, and Guadix: the other considerable
D towns

towns in this province are Ronda, Antiquera, Baza, and Loya.

In the province of Andalusia, are the cities of Seville, an archbishopric, Jaen, Corduba, Medina Sidonia, Cadiz, Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain; Port St. Maria, Ezeja, Baeza, Ossuna, St. Lucar, Anduxar, Carmona, Alcala-rael, Lucena, Arcos, Marchena, Ayamont, Ubeda, and Moguer.

In the province of Old Castile, are the cities of Burgos, an archbishopric; Valladolid, Segovia, Avila, Osma, Siguenza, Calahorra, Logronno, Soria, near which stood the ancient city of Numantia; St. Domingo, Roa, Nagera, Aranda, and Calzada.

In the province of New Castile stands Madrid, the capital of all Spain; which, though not dignified with the title of city, may justly be reckoned one of the largest and most opulent towns in the world. The cities in this province are Toledo, once the metropolis of Spain, and the greatest and richest archbishopric in the world, next to that of Rome; Cuenca, Ciudad Real, Guadalaxara, Hueta, Gueta, and Alcares. Besides these cities, there are a very considerable number of towns, particularly Alcala de Henarez, Almanza, the Escorial, and Aranjuez.

In the kingdom of Leon, are the cities of Leon, Salamanca, Ciudad, Rodrigo, Zamora, Astorga,

Astorgo, Palencia, Toro, Medina del Rio Seco, and the towns of Tor de Cillas, Medina del Campo, and Alva.

In the province of Estramadura, are seven cities, Merida, Badajox, Placentia, Coria, Truxillo, Lerena, Xeres de los Cavalaros, besides many towns, not inferior to cities, as to largeness, and number of inhabitants, particularly Alcantara, and Medilin.

There are three Spanish islands in the Mediterranean; Majorca, whose capital is Majorca; Minorca, belonging to Great Britain, whose chief towns are Citadella, and Mahon; and Ivica, whose chief town is Ivica.

There are twenty-two universities in Spain, the chief of which are Salamanca, Compostella, Valladolid, Saragossa, Palencia, Seville, and Toledo. There are eight archbishoprics in Spain, and a great many bishoprics.

The principal rivers in the kingdom of Spain, are,

1. The Iberus, now Ebro; it rises at Fontibre, on the borders of Biscay; thence crossing Navarre, Arragon, and Catalonia, falls into the Mediterranean below Tortosa, after a course of about three hundred miles.

2. The Durius, now the Douro, rises near the city of Soria, in Old Castile, runs westward through Leon and Portugal, and falls

into the Atlantic ocean, below the city of Oporto.

3. The Tagus, now Tajo, rises in the mountains of Molina, runs through New Castile, Estremadura, and Portugal, and falls into the ocean near Lisbon.

4. The antient Anas, or Anus, now Guadiana, springs from certain lakes, about twelve miles from Moutieil, in New Castile, and having run westward about eight or ten leagues, sinks under ground, and continues its subterraneous course about seven or eight leagues more, and then appears again near a village, called Daymiel in another lake, and having continued its course a considerable way, sinks twice under ground again, till having crossed the province of Estremadura and part of Portugal, it discharges itself into the ocean at Ayamonte, between Algarve, and Andalusia.

5. The Bætis, now Guadalquivir, which in the Arabic language, signifies the Great River, rises among the mountains of Segura, bends its course south-west, and receives several rivers, till, a little below Seville, it divides itself into two branches, and forms a kind of small island, on which stood the ancient town of Tartessus. This river is also famous for the excellency of its waters, for dressing and dying wool and woollen cloaths. It empties itself into the sea with such velocity, that the noise is heard at a great distance.

Spain being a country of great extent, the degrees of heat and cold differ very much between the northern and Southern parts of it, not only on account of the difference of their latitude, but likewise from other circumstances. The months of June, July, and August, are generally excessive hot in the more southern parts, at least for four or five hours in the middle of the day, and excepting those months, the rest of the year is delightful and temperate. The northern parts being more mountainions, are subject to severe frost, rain, and other inclemencies during the winter season. But upon the whole, the country in general is as pleasant and healthful as any in Europe.

The mountains of this kingdom are covered with tall trees, of several sorts, either for timber or fuel: the rocky parts with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which serve to feed an infinite number of goats and sheep, and render their milk and flesh more sweet than any that is fed on the richest pastures. There are mountains in Spain which produce great quantities of a plant, called by the Spaniards, *Esparto*, of which they make all kinds of ropes and cordage, and the boggy lands yield plenty of rushes for mats and other uses.

The vallies of this country, are in general exceeding fruitful, and produce wheat, perhaps the very best in Europe; barley in such abundance, that it is the common grain for their horses and mules instead of oats, which are very

scarce. They have likewise wine in great plenty, and exceeding good, such as Malaga, Sherry, Galicia, Alicant, Barcelona, and many other kinds not inferior to these.

The oil, wax, and honey, of this country are allowed to be exceeding good, and few countries exceed this for plenty, goodness, and variety of fowl, both wild and tame, and of four-footed game.

The chief manufactures of this country are silk, wool, iron, and copper; but these are not so considerable as might be expected, owing chiefly to the indolence of the inhabitants, and their want of hands.

PORTUGAL, which is three hundred miles in length; and one hundred in breadth, between 7° and 10° west longitude, and between 37° and 42° north latitude, is bounded on the east and north, by Spain, and on the south and west, by the ocean, and contains six provinces: 1. Entre Duero e Minho. 2. Tralos Montes. 3. Beira. 4. Efremadura. 5. Alentejo, and 6. Algarve.

Entre Duero e Minho contains the ancient city of Braga, an archbishopric; the city of Oporto; the towns of Guimarames, Viana, Caminha, Valenza, Monzoa, and Ponte de Lima.

Tralos

Tralos Montes contains the cities of Braganza, and Chaves, and the towns of Miranda, Villareal, Villa Floor, and Freixo de Espadacinta.

Beira contains the cities of Coimbra, Larnego, Visca, and Guarda, and the towns of Aveiro, Castel Rodrigo, Panhel, Almayda, Cavillano, and Montemor.

Estremadura in Portugal, contains only two cities, Lisbon, the metropolis of all Portugal, and Leria. Other towns of note in this province are Setubal Santarem, Alcazar del Sal, Tomar, Abrantes, Torres Novas, Torres Vieiras, Villa Franca, and some others of less note.

Alentejo, or Entre Tajo e Guadiano, contains four cities, Evora, or Eborá, an archbishopric; Portalegre, Elvas, and Beja. The towns of note are Villa Vitiosa, Estremos, Aviz, Olivenza, Moura, Serpa, and Campo Major.

Algarve contains the cities of Silves, Tavira, Lagos, and Faro. As for the towns of this province, they are scarcely worth mentioning; the largest of them is Laule, which contains eight hundred inhabitants.

There are three universities in Portugal, which are those of Lisbon, Eborá, and Coimbra; the archbishoprics are also three, Lisbon, Braga,

Braga, and Eborá ; and the bishoprics are ten in number.

The most remarkable rivers have been mentioned in the account of Spain ; and next to them the most considerable are,

1. Mondego, anciently famous for its golden sand. 2. Limia, the famous Lethe of the Greeks and Oblivion of the Latins, runs into the sea near the city of Viana. 3. Sadao, which makes a spacious bay at St. Ube, in the province of Alentejo. 4. Leza, formerly Celandes. 5. Ave. 6. Cavado. 7. Zezere. 8. Alba. 9. Goa. All of which run from east to west, and empty themselves in the Atlantic ocean.

The air of this country is not so good as that of Spain, though generally cooler, owing to the refreshing breezes from the sea.

The soil of Portugal is the very worst of all Spain, and never produces corn sufficient to supply its inhabitants. Pasture is no less scarce, and the cattle few in number, small and lean, though the flesh generally good. But to make amends in some measure for these deficiencies, here are made vast quantities of wine, which is indeed the best commodity in the kingdom. Oil is here likewise in great abundance, but much inferior to that of most other nations. Lemons and oranges grow here in great plenty, but are not so good as those of Seville ; nor indeed

deed are any of their fruit, either so large or so good as those of Spain.

S E C T. II.

A particular Account of the most curious natural Productions of Spain and Portugal, in the Animal, Vegetable, and Fossil Kingdoms; of remarkable Mountains and Caverns; of Medicinal and other singular Springs; of Lakes, Whirlpools, and other natural objects of Curiosity.

A N I M A L S.

ONE of the most remarkable animals found native in Spain and Portugal, is the buffalo, or wild bull. This is a species of the *bos*, or ox kind, with very large, crooked and resupinated horns. It is equal in size to our biggest oxen; the head is very large, the forehead remarkably broad, and the aspect very fierce and terrible; their eyes are large and prominent; the ears long and patulous; the neck is thick, and remarkably short; the flesh hangs very loose under the throat; the body is more bulky in proportion than in our bull; and the legs are thicker, but about equal in length. The buffalo is originally a native of the East, but has been introduced into some parts of Europe, where it is kept for service. In some places it is a beast of Burden and draught, and the milk of the females

females is used as that of our cows. But it is apt to be mischievous, and is less fit to be trusted loose in the field where people walk.

The wild boar, or hog, is also a native of these kingdoms ; but being no other than the common hog in his wild state, a description of it would appear superfluous.

It is fond of mountainous places, and generally lives in thick woods ; its body is covered with two kinds of hair, a longer and a shorter, much more distinguishable than in the tame hog.

The Spanish sheep, particularly about Segovia, in Old Castile, are famous all over Europe for the fineness of their wool, and the Spanish horses have been always celebrated for their swiftness and beauty : but however excellent the Spanish horses may be, the Spaniards have been long accustomed to breed a great number of mules, which, though not so swift, are much larger and stronger.

Mules are chiefly used in countries where there are rocky and stony roads, as about the Alps, Pyrenees, &c. Great numbers of them are kept in these places ; they are usually black, strong, well limbed, and large, being mostly bred out of the fine Spanish mares : the mules are sometimes fifteen or sixteen hands high. No creatures are so proper for carrying large burdens, and none so sure-footed. They are
much



The Wild Bear.

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much hardier and stronger than horses, will live and work twice their age; and those which are light are fitter for riding than horses, as to the walk and trot; but they are apt to gallop rough.

The cantharides is a native of Spain, whence it is usually known in England by the name of the Spanish fly, though the insect is frequent in France and Italy. It is properly of the scarabæus, or beetle kind: the creature is usually about half an inch in length, and a third of an inch, or somewhat less, in breadth: it is of a fine shining and beautiful colour, on the upper side a bright green, with a mixture or shade of gold yellow. From the eggs of the parent cantharides, are hatched a small kind of worms, of a dusky colour, with six legs; and from these worms are afterwards produced the cantharides, as the butterflies are from the caterpillars: being taken and suspended over the fumes of vinegar, they are exposed to the sun to dry, and then sold to the druggist.



VEGETABLES.

AMONG the most curious vegetables which grow native in Spain and Portugal, and which, though cultivated in England with much pains and care, never arrive at perfection, is the orange-tree. This plant grows in great abundance.

abundance all over the country, wearing a continual verdure, and bearing at the same time a fragrant bloom of flowers, and a diversity of fruits ; some in their infant state, and others in their full maturity.

The *Aurantium*, or orange-tree, according to the system of Botany invented by Linnæus, is a species of *Citrus*, or citron-tree, the generical characters of which are as follow : it is a genus of the order of the icosandria, belonging to the Polyadelphia class, being the second order of the eighteenth class. The calyx is a very small deciduous perianthium, formed of one leaf, plane at the base, and divided into five denticulations at the top. The corolla consists of five oblong, plane, patent, petals. The fruit is called a berry, covered with a thick fleshy rind ; the pulp being formed into vesicles, and having nine cells, in each of which there are two seeds, of a sub-oval figure and callous substance.

There are three species of this tree, the citron, the lemon, and the orange. The two first are natives of Media, Assyria, and Persia, and the second of India. The latter were first brought into Europe by the Portuguese ; and it is said, that the very first China orange-tree, so called from having been originally brought from China, and from which variety of the orange-tree, all the European trees of the same sort have been propagated, is still preserved at Lisbon : however that be, the trees of this genus are found to be the longest lived plants, perhaps of any other ;

other ; several of them having been kept in gardens between two and three hundred years, and even then retaining the appearance of their youthful vigour. There are several varieties from each of the two species ; and the city of Seville, in Spain, gives name to a variety of the orange-tree, which is celebrated for the agreeable acidity of its juice.

The pomegranate-tree is a native of Spain and Portugal, as it is also of Italy and Africa.

Though the fruit of this tree seldom arrives to any degree of perfection in England, so as to render it valuable, yet for the beauty of its scarlet-coloured flowers, together with the variety of its fruit, there should be one planted in every garden, since the culture which it requires is not great. The flowers of the pomegranate-tree and the bark of the fruit are used in medicine, and are reckoned great astringents.

The almond-tree deserves to be mentioned among the native vegetables of Spain and Portugal, though it is not peculiar to this soil, but also grows naturally in Barbary.

There are two kinds of these trees, and produce almonds of different sorts, sweet and bitter, both of which are used in medicine: the sweet almond is of a soft grateful taste, and reputed cooling, healing, emollient, and nutritive.

A Species of the ilex, called the holm-oak, or ever-green-oak, which grows naturally in Spain and Portugal, as well as Languedoc in France, is remarkable for a sort of husk, or berry, called kermes, and scarlet-grain, found adhering sometimes to its leaves, but generally to its stem or branches. It is of a spherical figure, as large as a pea, smooth, shining, and full of a mucilaginous juice of a beautiful red colour, of considerable use in medicine, and in dying scarlet. After the most diligent enquiries of naturalists into the production of this grain, it is found to be the nest of a small insect or worm, which, pricking the bark or leaf, in order to deposit its eggs, raises a little tumour or blister, which, by degrees, fills with a red pulp, impregnated with the numerous progeny of that animalcule. Hence, when the berry is dried, there comes out of it a prodigious number of little flies, so minute that they are scarce discernible, inso-much that the whole inward substance seems to be converted into these insects; to prevent which, the kermes is usually steeped in vinegar. The berries are of a vinous smell, and of a rough bitter taste.



F O S S I L S,

FROM the bowels of the mountains of Spain and Portugal, are dug a variety of minerals, particularly iron, copper, lead, quicksilver, alum,

alum, and calamine: here are quarries of marble of several sorts, and in the mines of these countries are found the agate, granate, jasper, and other precious stones. As to the gold and silver mines of these countries, they have either been exhausted by the Romans, Carthaginians, and other nations, or neglected by the inhabitants, since they have been able to draw such vast quantities of those rich metals out of their American dominions. Of all the mines in Spain and Portugal, those therefore are the most valuable, which furnish the inhabitants with iron and quicksilver, both of which they have great plenty. Their iron is excellent, particularly that which is dug out of the mountains of Biscay, whereof large quantities are sent to most parts of Europe, as well as manufactured at home. Some say the Spanish iron is the best in the world, but the Swedish iron has generally the preference, because the Spanish is apt to red-scar, as they call it, that is, to crack between hot and cold.

The agate, which is also found in Spain, is a precious stone, partly opaque, and partly transparent, usually diversified with various colours, veins, and spots, which sometimes represent trees, animals, fruits, flowers, and other natural objects.

The granate, or garnet, as it is commonly called, is a gem of a red colour, resembling that of the kernel of a pomegranate, from whence its name, granates, are distinguished into oriental

tal and occidental ; the former brought from several parts of the East-Indies, the latter found in Spain, Bohemia, and Silesia ; of which last sort, those of Bohemia are most valued, and by some preferred to the oriental kind. This stone, reduced to powder, and taken internally, is said to cure palpitations of the heart, to resist melancholy, and stop hæmorrhages ; and some believe it has the same effect if suspended about the neck,

Jasper is a precious stone not much different from the agate, except that it is more opaque, softer, and does not take so good a polish. The florid jasper, found in the Pyrenees, is usually stained with various colours, though some have only one colour, as red or green ; but these are least esteemed.

To these may be added another stone, though not of the precious kind, which is dug up in Spain, and several other parts of the world, viz. the hæmatites, or blood-stone : this is a ferrugineous, ponderous, hard, metallic substance, of a red, blackish, and sometimes an iron colour, and of an earthy astringent taste. Some of these stones have an uneven and angular surface, as those that are found in Spain, which are reckoned the best in Europe ; others are clustered on the surface, like bunches of grapes, as those brought from the Hercynian forest in Germany ; and others are formed like
interines,

intestines, or the outer surface of the brain, in various convolutions.

The salt mines in the mountains of Catalonia, belonging to the duke of Cardona, deserve to be mentioned under this article. The salt dug out of them is of four kinds, white, bay, red, and brilliant; which are found in distinct strata, one above another. The first is like our sea-salt, only it is not granulated. The second is of an iron and slate colour, but has most of the qualities of the white. The third only differs from the rest by the mixture of some bole or earth, which gives it the colour of a rose. And the fourth sort, though brilliant, is transparent as crystal, which is the proper *sal-gemmae* of the druggists. This last kind will become red hot in the fire, like iron, but easily dissolves in water: yet the druggists wash it, to give it the greater lustre, taking care to wipe it dry again immediately.



REMARKABLE MOUNTAINS, LAKES, SPRINGS, RIVERS, CAVERNS, and other NATURAL OBJECTS of CURIOSITY.

THE most celebrated mountains of Spain are the Pyrenees, which separate this kingdom from France, and of which some account has been given among the remarkable mountains of

that country. From the Pyrenees, several chains of mountains branch out, and extend themselves through great part of Spain and Portugal; the most remarkable of these are the Asturian and Biscayan; those of Andalusia and Granada are famous for their mineral treasures, and their medicinal waters, whose healing virtues many have experienced. The most considerable mountains in Portugal, are the Estrella, which run from north to south, between the provinces of Beira and Tralos Montes. In this mountain is a noble lead mine; and on the top of it are two lakes of a vast extent, and so deep, that one of them, in particular, could never be fathomed: but what is still more extraordinary, these lakes, are calm when the sea is calm, and rough when the sea is stormy; from whence it is conjectured, that they have a subterranean communication with the ocean, though no less than 40 miles distant from it; which conjecture seems to be confirmed by the wrecks of ships which are now and then thrown up by them.

Near Roya, in Portugal, is another extraordinary lake or pool, which is said to make a hideous rumbling noise, like that of thunder; and usually before a storm, is heard at the distance of eighteen or twenty miles. Near the river Mondego, about twenty-four miles from Coimbra, is a celebrated pool, called Ferventia, and mentioned by Pliny, which is said to absorb any thing thrown into it, though ever so light; as wood, feathers, straw, cork, or any such light substances, which sink down gradually,

as they are thrown in, and never rise again in the same place.

Near Estremos, in Portugal, is a spring, which petrifies wood, or rather covers it with a case of stone : but the most surprizing circumstance is, that it throws up water enough in summer, to turn several mills, whereas it is quite dried up in the winter. In the kingdom of Portugal, are several mineral and medicinal springs, of great virtue, and much resorted to ; some of a hot, and others of a cold nature. One in particular of the hot kind, stands about forty five miles north of Lisbon, and has an hospital built near it, for the reception of the poor, who come to drink the waters. There are several other hot springs in this kingdom. The hot bath of St. Peter, in Algarve, and some others, in the northern parts of Portugal, are much celebrated for their virtues.

The most famous hot springs in Spain, are those of Seville, Cordoua, and Granada, which are said to cure most chronical, and even venereal diseases ; which extraordinary effects are ascribed to the minerals with which they are impregnated, their excessive heat, and the plentiful perspiration occasioned by that and the warmth of the climate ; and near Antequera, in Granada, is a spring, the water of which is said to dissolve the stone in the bladder, and bring it away by urine.

The river Guadiana, about twenty-four miles from its source, is entirely swallowed up under ground, and, after a subterraneous course of about twenty miles more, rises again in a lake, near a village, called Daymiel. From hence it takes the name of Guadiana, being called Ruydera, from its source to this place, and in its course from Daymiel, it sinks twice under ground again, before it falls into the ocean.

In the vale of Roncal, in the kingdom of Navarre, in Spain, are many large and capacious caverns, in which are found vast quantities of human bones, and some of them of a surprising magnitude ; there are many relations concerning these bones, some of which are too romantic to deserve any credit, and the rest are founded on vague traditions.

Near Antequera, in Granada, are several remarkable caves, which are supposed to have been mines formerly, carried on by the Romans, and exhausted of their metals ; and near the same place, is a ridge of high rocks, which at a distance, have the appearance of men, beasts, and buildings, and are esteemed natural objects of great curiosity.

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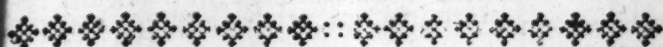


Ruins of Lisbon as appeared immediately after



*View of the Temple of Mars Ultor, after the EARTH QUAKE & FIRE, on the 1st Nov. 1755.
taken on the Spot.*

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S E C T. III.

An Historical Account of the most remarkable Earthquakes Inundations, Fires, Epidemic Diseases, and other public Calamities, which, at different Times, have visited the Inhabitants of Spain and Portugal.

SPAIN and Portugal have suffered much from earthquakes; but the most extraordinary shock of any recorded in history, and that which proved the most fatal to those kingdoms, happened on Saturday the first of November, 1755. No accounts can equal the dreadful effects of this concussion; the shocks having extended from north to south, upwards of 2500 miles, with the utmost violence, and their effects upon the waters of the ocean, seas, rivers, and lakes, by throwing them into great agitation, having extended more than 5000 miles in circumference. About half an hour after nine, the inhabitants of Oporto, in Portugal, were alarmed with a rumbling noise immediately preceding the shock, whereby the whole city was shaken; several chimnies, stones and crosses thrown down, and some churches opened at top. The inhabitants were thrown into the utmost confusion, not knowing where to fly for preservation; some making their way to the river, to get into boats, and on board ships, and others to different parts, while
some

some were so distracted with fear, that they did not know where they were going. Many remained on the middle of the street, lest the houses should fall ; some without hats, caps, &c. others without stockings or shoes, all in the greatest consternation that can be conceived. The horror of those who ran to the river-side, was, if possible, greater than theirs who remained in the street ; for, the river retiring about twenty yards from them, returned with a great violence and a horrid noise. Two large Brazil ships lying without the bar, the sea rose in one great wave, and brought them into the river, over places that before were dry, without any considerable damage, to the astonishment of the poor sailors and pilots, who thought of nothing but immediate destruction. The sea, after that commotion, ebbed and flowed till night, three or four feet in five or six minutes ; the ships moved, some up the river, while others went down : several small shocks were felt during the day, but so faint as to be only just perceivable.

Some time after ten, the same shock was felt at Madrid, where it lasted eight minutes, but without doing any considerable damage, besides shattering and splitting the steeples of some churches, and throwing the inhabitants into the utmost consternation.

About half an hour after nine, the shock began at Lisbon, and lasted with the utmost violence near eight minutes, whereby almost all the

the public edifices, and most of the other houses of that superb capital were thrown down, and upwards of fifty thousand people buried in the ruins; for unhappily that day being a great festival in the Romish church, and the earthquake just happening at the time of celebrating their first mass, thousands were assembled in the churches, the major part of whom were killed: because these great buildings, particularly those built on any eminence, suffered first; very few of the churches or convents having escaped. During this shock, which was attended with such a horrid noise, that most people apprehended the dissolution of the world, the earth trembled to that degree, that people could scarce keep upon their legs. This shock, in about fifteen minutes afterwards, was followed by another, no less violent, during which, the earth opened in several places, and having swallowed up whole streets, threw up dreadful quantities of fire, water, and smoke. At the same time, the water in the river rose up several yards perpendicularly, whereby those that escaped the general destruction, were alarmed with a cry that the sea was coming in, upon which all climbing over the ruins of churches, houses, &c. and stepping over thousands of dead and dying people, crowded forward to the hills: several vessels were swallowed in the Tagus, by the agitation of the waters, or sunk by the fall of the royal palace and other buildings, situated on the banks of that river.

About half an hour after this second shock, there was another, which lasted for some minutes

nutes; and a fourth about twelve o'clock, at which time, or soon after, as if all the elements had combined to the ruin of this metropolis, two fires broke out in different parts of the city, which almost compleated its destruction.

Before this conflagration, the horror of the scene within the city was beyond all description; for, during the first shock, the whole city, by the clouds of dust occasioned by the falling houses, was darker than the darkest night: it had no sooner cleared up, than the scene of the sudden desolation and destruction occasioned by this shock, more plainly appeared. Numbers were seen expiring, others a shocking spectacle, while the clergy ran about to absolve such as were still alive. Nothing was heard but howling, crying for mercy, and the groans of the dying. A large quay, piled up with goods, near the Custom-house, sunk by the first shock, with about six hundred persons upon it, who all perished. The king, queen, and all the royal family, escaped from the palace just before it fell. The Spanish ambassador, and nine of his domestics, perished under the ruins of his house. A remarkable providence seems to have distinguished the protestants, for, among the great numbers settled in Lisbon, only about forty or fifty persons perished. The reason of this remarkable delivery, was in a great measure owing to the numbers of them that went out of town before the earthquake began; for the 1st of November, being the festival of All-Saints, was appointed for the celebration of the

auto da fe; upon which occasion, insults are frequently offered to protestants in that capital. This dreadful solemnity, as it determined great numbers of protestants to leave the city that day, so it brought numbers of the county inhabitants to Lisbon, to see the cruel show; which was the occasion that many more of the Portuguese were lost, than perhaps otherwise would have been.

In this melancholy catastrophe, scarce a single building in the city of Lisbon escaped, except the Mint. All the people that survived the general destruction, fled into the fields, great numbers of whom were half naked. The loss sustained in goods upon this awful event, was immense: for the fire consumed all sorts of merchandize, household goods, and wearing apparel, so that scarcely any thing was left, but what cloaths the inhabitants happened to have on, in which situation they were reduced to the necessity of living for more than two months in tents, or in the open air in the fields, or on board the ships in the harbour, labouring under a variety of diseases, the common effects of all terrible earthquakes attended with eruptions,

S E C T. IV.

An Account of the most celebrated Inventions, Discoveries, &c. of the Inhabitants of Spain and Portugal.

THOUGH the Spaniards and Portuguese are generally men of a piercing wit, and elevated genius, they are very little improved by study, and consequently the world are little indebted to them for any important discoveries or inventions in the liberal arts or sciences. This may, in a great measure, be owing to their want of schools and academies, where the sciences are taught in the modern method; for those who study, apply themselves chiefly to the antient philosophy; and are such slaves to the opinions of the antients, that they will admit of no other systems; and in regard to learning, the Spaniards and Portuguese evidently labour under two other material disadvantages, which are, the want of a liberty of the press, and the being subjected to the censure of the inquisition. We owe, however, the Complutensian bible to cardinal Ximenes, archbishop of Toledo. This was the first Polyglot ever printed, and was published in 1520, in six volumes, including the Lexicon. It was printed in four languages, the Hebrew, Chaldee, Greek, and Latin, and served as a model to that of Mr. Walton, which is more useful and exact; and to that of M. Le Jay, printed at Paris, with more expensive ornaments.

S E C T.

S E C T. V.

*Particular Descriptions of the most remarkable
Public Buildings in Spain and Portugal.*

C H U R C H E S.

AMONG the cathedral churches of Spain, that of Toledo seems to claim the first notice, being certainly one of the noblest and richest in the world. It is pretended to have been originally built by St. James the Apostle, but the present structure was erected in 1227, by king Ferdinand the Third: it is built of a beautiful white stone, curiously carved, and in the finest stile: it is 384 feet in length, 191 in breadth, and 107 in heighth. Its lofty roof is supported by eighty-eight stately columns, which divide it into three spacious aisles, of which the middle is extremely grand and majestic. Eight large and beautiful gates of solid brass, with magnificent porticos, lead into this noble fabric, over which is a stately tower, with a ring of bells of a prodigious size, and commands an extensive prospect over the neighbouring country. The choir of the high altar is adorned with the finest carved work, and inclosed with costly iron gates, fixed on bases of jasper-stone. On each side of the altar is a brass pulpit, supported by pillars of the same metal. The choir of the canons is inclosed in the same manner, and enriched with the most curious carvings in

wood and jasper. Both these choirs are adorned on the outside with fine statues in niches, and other ornamental imagery, representing several pieces of scripture-history. As to the chapels in this cathedral, of which there are a great number, it is impossible to describe their beauty and riches, or the fine monuments of the kings, archbishops, and other illustrious persons, whose remains are there deposited. The principal of these chapels, called the Sagrario, wherein the treasure of the church is kept, is all lined with jasper, from the pavement to the roof; and the altar, which stands in a large niche, is encompassed with a ballustrade of silver. The image of the virgin, as big as the life, is also of silver; and round the altar hang a great many lamps of the same metal. Forty, or fifty large closets are contrived in the wall, which are filled with a prodigious quantity of gold and silver vessels, and other utensils, such as basons, chalices, crosses, croziers, mitres, &c. The tabernacle, under which the host is carried in procession on particular festivals, is all of silver gilt, and of most exquisite workmanship: it may be taken into seven thousand pieces, and is so heavy, that it requires thirty men to carry it. Within this, there is a vessel of pure gold, some of the first that was brought from America, which contains the consecrated wafer. Here is also a figure of the virgin sitting upon a rock formed of precious stones, amongst which is a diamond as big as a pigeon's egg.

The

The cathedral of Compostella, dedicated to St. Jago, or St. James the apostle, whom the Spaniards affirm to be buried in that city, is a strong and magnificent fabric, having a very lofty cupola, adorned with four stately towers. The tabernacle, or repository over the altar, is perhaps the finest in the world, being supported by six angels mounted on as many columns; and the effigy of the apostle is supported by four kings of Spain. The whole is of silver gilt, of the most curious workmanship, and enriched with all proper ornaments. Here are six large silver candlesticks, five feet high, presented by Philip the Third; and about thirty silver lamps are kept continually burning in this church, besides forty or fifty wax tapers round the altar. As vast numbers of pilgrims resort hither out of devotion, there is a noble hospital built near the cathedral for the reception of the poor and sick, where they are treated with great care and humanity.

Some are of opinion, that the cathedral of Seville, in which there is a mixture of the Gothic and Moorish taste, has something in it that looks majestic beyond any other in the kingdom. It is certainly a very stately edifice, being 407 feet in length, 270 in breadth, and 128 in height, and its roof is supported by two double rows of beautiful columns. The tower of this church is 350 feet high, all built of brick, with large windows to give light to the stair-case, the ascent of which is so easy, that one may ride up it on horseback, or even

in a chaise. It is terminated by a cupola, on the top of which is the figure of a woman in brass, that turns to point out the wind like a weather-cock. The inside of the church is adorned with statues, paintings, monuments, and other decorations. There is a magnificent tabernacle on the high altar, which is of massy silver, weighing above six hundred pounds, the workmanship whereof is said to have cost forty thousand ducats.

The cathedral of Leon is deservedly admired for the beauty and regularity of its architecture, and the elegance and variety of its ornaments, in which respect it is esteemed the finest in Spain. It is likewise remarkable for the monuments of an emperor, thirty-seven kings, and other illustrious personages there interred.

But of all the cathedrals in Spain, the most magnificent is that of Cordoua, which is still called the Mezquila, having been originally a mosque, built in the eighth century by the famous moorish prince, Abderhaman, and may be justly ranked among the wonders of the world. It is 600 feet in length, and 250 in breadth; and the roof, which is exceedingly bold, lofty, and richly gilt, is supported by 365 columns of fine marble. It has twenty-four gates, adorned with sculpture; and some of its chapels, of which there are upwards of 300, are particularly beautiful, being embellished with gilding, paintings, and other ornaments.

The





St. Peter



1700

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The cathedral of Burgos, in Old Castile, is one of the most magnificent and richest churches in Spain. It was built by Ferdinand the Third, in 1122, and is 260 feet long, 206 feet broad, and of a proportionable height. It has five choirs, or large choral chapels, each furnished with a large organ.

The cathedral church of Lisbon, as it stood before the earthquake of the first of November, 1755, was a vast edifice, but heavy, clumsy, and in the Gothic taste; yet, as it stands upon a hill, at a proper distance, it affords a most noble prospect: however, what it wants in elegance and beauty on the outside, is amply made up by the richness of its ornaments within; such as statues, paintings, utensils of gold and silver of the finest workmanship, and enriched with the most costly gems.



ROYAL PALACES.

THE royal palace of the Escorial, so called from a village of the same name in the neighbourhood of which it stands, at the distance of twenty-two miles from Madrid, is not only the most magnificent palace in Spain, but perhaps in Europe, and is reckoned by the Spaniards one of the Wonders of the world. This palace, including a monastery, church, college, library, and other buildings, was erected by Philip the Second,

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astounding to view the sacristy or vestry, filled with the vestments, chalices, and other costly vessels and utensils belonging to the church. Here are a great number of statues of saints, &c. of excellent workmanship, and several of the smaller sort are of gold and silver. The paintings, which are reckoned above sixteen hundred, are many of them large, and done by the most eminent masters. Underneath the grand chapel is a large and beautiful mausoleum, or burial-place for the royal family, which is called the pantheon, being a rotunda, built after the manner of the pantheon at Rome. The descent to it consists of more than fifty marble steps, and the gate that opens into it is of brass gilt, and of very curious workmanship. The dome is lined with jasper, intermixed with little plates of brass, and the pavement is likewise composed of squares of jasper and marble, forming a star in the middle. Facing the entrance is a kind of chapel or oratory, adorned in the most sumptuous manner imaginable, particularly with a crucifix, enriched with diamonds, and other precious stones. In the middle of this noble vault is a large brazen candlestick, supported by figures of angels, and the four evangelists, of the same metal; and in twenty-six niches, which are embellished with the richest ornaments, are placed as many urns or sepulchres of black marble, thirteen or fourteen whereof are already filled with the deceased kings and queens of Spain, and the rest wait to receive the remains of succeeding monarchs. As to the royal apartments, or what may be properly called

called the palace, a particular description of them would fill a large volume. It will be therefore necessary to observe in general, that these apartments are large, stately, furnished in the most magnificent manner, and adorned with every thing that is rich and beautiful. Throughout the whole, there is a vast variety of marble, jasper, and other curious stones, carved by the best masters, and in the grandest taste; and all the halls, galleries, stair-cases, &c. are filled with excellent paintings.

The monastery, in which there are two hundred religious monks, of the order of St. Jerome, consists of five courts or squares, each of which is adorned with a marble fountain. The grand cloister, which is two hundred and ten feet square, is paved with black and white marble, as are likewise the walks of the garden within it; and at the bottom of it is a beautiful chapel in form of a dome, open on all sides, and supported by marble columns. The refectory, or hall, where the religious take their meals, is very long, and adorned with fine paintings, amongst which, there is one representing Charles the Fifth, and Philip the Second, carried to heaven by angels. There are several infirmaries for the sick belonging to this monastery, two grand apartments to entertain strangers, nine kitchens, above forty rooms underground for offices of divers kinds, and eleven vast cisterns, that will hold two hundred tons of water.

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The college, where a number of young students are maintained at the king's expence, is a very handsome building; and the library is in all respects answerable to the rest of this noble edifice. It contains a fine collection of books in all languages and faculties, both printed and manuscript, disposed in a very elegant manner. The floor is beautifully paved with marble, and the ceiling adorned with admirable paintings, representing the liberal arts and sciences. The books, which are about 100,000, are placed in five galleries, one above another, all finely painted by Titian, and other celebrated masters.

But to give the reader some general idea of the surprising grandeur of this palace, it must be observed, that, according to F. Francisco de los Santos, who wrote a description of the Escorial in a large folio volume, it would take up more than four days to go through all its rooms and apartments; the length of the way being reckoned 33 Spanish leagues, which is above 120 English miles; and besides the many thousand windows in this vast pile, Alvarez de Colmenar, in his *Delices de l'Espagne*, affirms, that there are 14,000 doors belonging to it.

The royal palace of Aranjuez, about thirty miles south of Madrid, though greatly inferior to the Escorial in extent and beauty of structure, yet far exceeds it for delightful gardens and water-works, which are here in the highest perfection. It is situated in an island formed by the

the conflux of the Tagus and the Xarama, and a large canal cut from one river to another. A handsome terrace runs round the gardens, which are so well supplied with water from the Tagus, that they are never scorched by the sun's heat, but preserved in a constant state of bloom and verdure. In short, the great number of fine fountains, grottos, cascades, shady walks, summer-houses, and other ornaments of this palace, render it the most agreeable retreat in the kingdom, though the Escorial is more frequented by the royal family.

At Madrid there are two royal palaces: one stands on the west side of the city, and is a spacious and magnificent edifice, consisting of several courts, with piazzas round them, and a great many gilt balconies, which have a fine effect. The royal apartments are richly furnished, and adorned with fine tapestries, paintings, busts and statues. The other palace is distinguished by the name of *Casa del Campo*, and thither the king frequently retires in the heat of the summer to refresh himself in the cool shady walks, which are the principal convenience of this seat.

Upon the declivity of a hill, near Madrid, is a beautiful and magnificent palace, called, *El Buen Retiro*, or the Beautiful Retreat, from its having been designed as a place of retirement for the king, from the hurry of the court and town. It consists of a spacious square, built of brick, and flanked with pavilions at each corner,

ner, having a parterre, and a beautiful fountain in the middle of it. The apartments are large and stately, furnished in the most elegant and sumptuous manner, and adorned with exquisite paintings. The gardens abound with the most delightful shady walks, canals, water-works, and statues : and all the pleasing variety that art and nature can produce, to form a pleasant retirement. Between the palace of *El Buen Retiro*, and the town of Madrid, and adjoining to both places, is a delightful plain, shaded with rows of poplar trees, and adorned with twenty-three fountains, called the Prado, whither the nobility and gentry repair every evening in their coaches, or on horseback.

At Valladolid, is a royal palace, which, though antient, is a grand and majestic structure ; and at Toledo is another magnificent old palace, built by king Alonzo the sixth : but one of the greatest curiosities of this kind in Spain, is an ancient palace or castle, at Granada, built by the Moorish kings. This extensive and magnificent structure, which is kept in good repair, stands upon a hill, and has the appearance of a citadel, being surrounded with a strong wall, fortified with towers and bastions, and large enough to receive a garrison of forty-thousand men. It consists of several courts, the first of which is a noble and extensive building, paved with marble, and adorned with a fountain at each of the four corners, and a fine canal of spring water in the middle, from whence the water is conveyed by pipes into the halls

and chambers of the palace : the whole building is of free stone, but the inside of the walls is lined with marble, jasper, and porphyry : the cielings of the rooms are many of them gilt, and in several parts of the palace are found hieroglyphical figures and inscriptions. The most beautiful part of this royal edifice is a spacious square, called *El Quadro de los Leones*, which has a fine stone gallery running round it, supported by a hundred and seventeen columns of white marble. In the middle of the square is a noble fountain, where a large marble bason is supported by the figures of twelve lions, which spout water out of their mouths incessantly. Adjoining to this palace, on the declivity of the hill, are a delightful park and gardens ; and the whole place is a fine monument of the grandeur of the Moorish princes.

The king of Portugal had a palace at Lisbon, which was a stately fabric, beautifully situated on the banks of the Tagus, and richly furnished : but being swallowed up by the earthquake in 1755, the court resides constantly at Villa Vitiosa, about eighty-three miles south-east of Lisbon, in which is a fine palace, with a beautiful park ten miles round.





View of the Palace of



the King of Portugal, at LISBON.



REMARKABLE BRIDGES, and other BUILDINGS.

PADRONO, a sea-port town of Galicia, situated between the rivers Sar and Ulla, has a stately bridge over each of these rivers, the one built by Pompey the Great, and the other by Julius Cæsar.

Alcantara, in the province of Estramadura, has a magnificent bridge over the river Tajo, built by the Roman emperor Trajan: it consists of no more than six arches, though it is upwards of 600 feet in length; its height is said to be 200 feet above the water.

At Badajoz, in the province of Estramadura, is a stately bridge over the river Guadiana, consisting of thirty arches, and above 1500 feet in length; and at Merida, in the same province, is another magnificent bridge over the same river.

Cordoua, in Andalusia, has a noble bridge of seventeen arches, over the Guadalquivir, which is adorned with several stately towers, and was built by one of the Moorish princes.

At Madrid, is a magnificent bridge over the Mauzanarez, built by Philip the Second, called

the bridge of Segovia : Valladolid has a stately bridge over the river Pisuerga ; and at Saragossa there are two noble bridges over the Ebro, the one of stone, the other of wood, and the wooden bridge is esteemed the finest of the kind in Europe.

At Coimbra, in Portugal, is a fine bridge, over the river Mondego, consisting of a double range of arches, one above another ; and it is reckoned, that in the little province of Entre Duero e Minho, in this kingdom, there are no less than two hundred stately bridges of square stone.

In the town of Madrid, is a square, called Plaza Mayor, or the Grand Square, which is four hundred and thirty-six feet long, and three hundred and thirty-four feet broad, all arched, after the manner of Covent-Garden, in London, with open walks underneath, which afford shelter from sun and rain. On the arches, or pillars are reared a hundred and thirty-six stately houses all uniform, with continued rows of balconies joining one to another, and all exactly alike ; no house being permitted to vary in the least from the general form of the building, either in windows, balconies, or any other ornaments, that may interrupt the uniformity of the whole pile. In this square, are celebrated the bull-baitings, and other public shews of Madrid, it being spacious enough to contain 50,000 spectators, with great ease.

At

At Valladolid, is a great square, with a piazza, the exact model of that at Madrid, consisting of five hundred arches, three thousand windows, all in full view, and three hundred and thirty stately gates, or doors, leading into those buildings.



S E C T. VI.

Curious Remains of Antiquity in Spain and Portugal. Remarkable Laws, Customs, and Traditions of the Inhabitants; with a Summary View of the most extraordinary Revolutions among them.

REMAINS of ANTIQUITY.

AS the Romans were along time masters of Spain, a great many of their monuments may naturally be expected in that country: and indeed there are several remains of Roman buildings still to be met with in many parts of the kingdom; and perhaps it is owing to the devastations of the Moors, that not a greater variety of Roman structures is to be found throughout Spain and Portugal.

There is no monument of Roman magnificence in Spain more remarkable, or preserved more entire, than an aqueduct at Segovia, built

built by the emperor Trajan. It is of a surprising magnitude, consisting of two rows of arches, one over the other, which convey water in great plenty through the whole city, so as not only to supply the houses, but also many fountains, and other water-works, in the gardens of the nobility and gentry of the place. It is built of very large stones, and, though it has stood so many centuries, is still strong and beautiful, and seldom in need of repair.

At Merida, among other remains of Roman antiquity, there is still standing great part of a triumphal arch, now called by the inhabitants of this place, Arca de St. Jago; and at Tarragona, are yet visible the ruins of some ancient Roman structures, particularly of an amphitheatre, which has furnished materials for the building of a neighbouring church. At Toledo, are also the ruins of a noble amphitheatre.

At Setubal, about twenty miles from Lisbon, is a stately Roman aqueduct. The walls of Santarem, about forty miles east of Lisbon, were built by the Romans; and, notwithstanding their great antiquity, they are at this day reckoned very strong. At Evora, in the province of Alentejo, several monuments with Roman inscriptions have been dug up; and at Villa Vitiosa, a great number of Roman coins have been found, together with many inscribed monuments, from which it appears, that here was a temple dedicated to Proserpine.



REMARKABLE CUSTOMS and LAWS.

BULL-FIGHTING is a sport or exercise peculiar to the Spaniards and Portuguese, and consists chiefly of a kind of combat of a cavalier or tauriro, against a wild bull, either on foot, or on horseback, by riding at him with a lance, or other weapon. Of these sports, which are always celebrated on some festival or rejoicing-day, and are therefore called bull-feasts, we meet with various accounts; one of which is to the following effect. A bull-feast having been appointed at Madrid, on account of the king's marriage, several cows were driven into the neighbouring forests, and being pursued by wild bulls, the females decoyed them into stables, prepared for them, near the Great square, called the Plaza Mayor, where the combat was to be; and it is said, that by this means, no less than between thirty and forty of these wild bulls are frequently at one time brought to Madrid; the streets of which are lined and barricadoed on the sides, to prevent these furious creatures doing mischief. If any of the bulls endeavour to return, and make his escape, he is followed by a body of men, some on horseback, and others on foot, armed with lances, spears, and other weapons, who force him back; and

and where a cavalier is so fortunate as to bring back a bull that has broke from the rest, the honour is almost equal to that of having killed him in single combat.

The bulls being fed for some time, the fiercest of them were made choice of for the sport; and on the day appointed, the Plaza Mayor being covered with sand, was surrounded with a strong barricade six feet high.

Things being thus prepared, six of the city officers entered the square, mounted on fine horses, richly accoutred after the Moreisco fashion; they were dressed in white habits, with plumes of feathers in their hats, and each of them with a white wand; and their business was to introduce the knights, who were to encounter the bulls. The first day of the feast, these officers introduced six cavaliers, prepared for the combat, mounted on fine horses set off with the richest furniture, and feathers in their hats; each of the cavaliers was followed by twelve led horses, and as many mules, laden with lances, about five feet long, finely pointed and gilt; and the mules were covered with velvet embroidered with the arms of their respective masters, who were dressed in black, embroidered with gold and silver, with diamond hat-bands, and scarfs of different colours, with black cloaks tied behind them, so as not to hinder the use of their arms; they had on their legs little white buskins, and long gilt spurs, with one sharp point only; after the manner of the Moors;
and

and like them rode in short stirrups, which brought their knees as high as the saddle: they were attended each by forty footmen, who were all in foreign dresses, and carried a bundle of lances.

Being conducted by the city officers over the Plaza Mayor, on approaching the king's balcony, they made a profound reverence, and asked leave to engage the bulls, which being granted with wishes for their success, all the trumpets sounded, and the people shouted; after this they separated, and, having saluted the ladies of their acquaintance, sent away all their footmen out of the lists, except two for each cavalier, who carried their masters lances, and kept close at their sides. At the same time entered several robust fellows, from different parts of the kingdom, in order to fight the bulls on foot.

The city officers, having received the keys of his majesty's stables, let out a bull, and made their escape as fast as their horses could carry them; and the bull no sooner came into the square, but the young fellows on foot shot their arrows, or threw their darts at him, which sticking in his flesh, he raged and stamped, threatening destruction to every thing in his way; upon which one of the cavaliers approaching him with his lance, the beast run at him with all his fury, but was dexterously avoided by the knight, who slipped on one side; and, as the bull passed, wounded him with a lance, which being broken,

one of the footmen supplied his master with another, with which he attacked the beast again in the like manner: this increased the fury of the bull to the last degree, and the cavalier seemed to be in great danger, upon which the footmen came to his assistance, and one of them, who was a black, advancing to the beast with his dagger only, struck him with that force between his horns, that he fell dead upon the spot. Then the city officers came in with four mules and dragged the beast out of the rails, under the sound of trumpets and the acclamations of the people.

It appears, that there were no less than twenty bulls let out to fight on this occasion, one after another; and one of these bulls ran with such fury at count Coningsmark, who was one of the combatants, that he wounded him in the leg, and ript up his horse's belly; notwithstanding which, the count, supported by one of his footmen, attacked the bull on foot, with his sword only, and gave the beast a terrible wound in the head, upon which, turning to the lady of his affections, he kissed his sword, and was carried off half dead with the loss of blood. The same day, a Biscayner leaped from his horse on the back of the bull he was engaged with, and continued there a quarter of an hour; and in the end broke one of the bull's horns. At this feast, a young gentleman of Toledo was tossed up into the air by a bull, and so bruised by the fall, that he died on the spot; two others were mortally wounded, and four horses killed; and yet

yet this is nothing to the mischief that happens sometimes on the like occasions.

If a bull defends himself so long that the spectators are tired of him, they bait him with dogs, and hamstring him, and another bull is let out: the dexterity with which the combatants manage their horses and arms is incredible, keeping sometimes a whole hour within a foot of the beast without being touched. It seems, that when the bull has insulted a cavalier by forcing his lance out of his hand, throwing off his hat, wounding his horse, or any of the company, the knight is bound in honour to give him a wound in return, or die in the attempt; and if the horse appears daunted at the bull, the cavalier must alight and engage on foot; the rest of the knights also are obliged to dismount and follow him, not to engage themselves, but to see if they can terrify the beast, by marching against him in a body; and if the creature retires to the further end of the square, they have satisfied the law of duelling, as they call it.

In Spain and Portugal, as well as in Italy, there is a tribunal, called the Inquisition, or Holy Office, erected by the pope's authority, for the examination and punishment of heretics, or those who entertain opinions contrary to any of the tenets of the church of Rome. This court was founded in the twelfth century, by father Dominic and his followers, who were sent by pope Innocent the Third, with
orders

orders to excite the catholic princes and people to extirpate heretics, to search into their number and quality, and to transmit a faithful account thereof to Rome. Hence they were called inquisitors; and this gave birth to the formidable tribunal of the inquisition, which was received in all Italy, and the dominions of Spain, except the kingdom of Naples, and the Low Countries.

This diabolical tribunal takes cognizance of heresy, Judaism, Mahometanism, sodomy, and polygamy; and the people stand in so much fear of it, that parents deliver up their children, husbands their wives, and masters their servants, to its officers, without daring in the least to murmur. The prisoners are kept for a long time, till they themselves turn their own accusers, and declare the cause of their imprisonment; for they are neither told their crime, nor confronted with witnesses. As soon as they are imprisoned their friends go into mourning, and speak of them as dead, not daring to solicit their pardon, lest they should be brought in as accomplices. When there is no shadow of proof against the pretended criminal, he is discharged, after suffering the most cruel tortures, a tedious and dreadful imprisonment, and the loss of the greatest part of his effects. The sentence against the prisoners is pronounced publicly, and with extraordinary solemnity. In Portugal they erect a theatre, capable of holding three thousand persons, in which they place a rich altar, and raise seats on each side
in

in the form of an amphitheatre. There the prisoners are placed; and over-against them is a high chair, whither they are called, one by one, to hear their doom, from one of the inquisitors.

These unhappy people know what they are to suffer, by the cloaths they wear that day. Those who appear in their own cloaths, are discharged upon payment of a fine: those who have a *santo benito*, or strait yellow coat without sleeves, charged with St. Andrew's cross, have their lives, but forfeit all their effects: those who have the resemblance of flames made of red serge, sewed up on their *santo benito*, without any cross, are pardoned, but threatened to be burnt if ever they relapse: but those who, besides these flames, have on their *santo benito* their own picture, surrounded with figures of devils, are condemned to expire in the flames. The inquisitors, who are ecclesiastics, do not pronounce the sentence of death, but form and read an act, in which they say, that the criminal being convicted of such a crime, by his own confession, is, with much reluctance, delivered to the secular power to be punished according to his demerits: and this writing they give to the seven judges, who attend at the right side of the altar, who immediately pass sentence. The prisoners being thus in the hands of the civil magistrate, are presently loaded with chains, and carried first to the secular goal, and from thence in an hour or two brought before the civil judge, who, after asking in what religion

they intend to die, pronounces sentence, on such as declare they die in the communion of the church of Rome, that they shall be first strangled, and then burnt to ashes ; on such as die in any other faith, that they be burnt alive.

Both are immediately carried to the place of execution, where there are as many stakes set up, as there are prisoners to be burnt, with a quantity of dry furz about them. The stakes of the professed, that is, such as persist in their heresy, are about four yards high, having a small board towards the top for the prisoner to be seated on. The negative and relapsed being first strangled and burnt, the professed mount their stakes by a ladder ; and the priests who attend them, after several repeated exhortations to be reconciled to the church, part with them, telling them they leave them to the devil, who is standing at their elbows to receive their souls, and carry them with him into the flames of hell. On this a great shout is raised, and the cry is, " Let the dogs beards be singed," which is done by thrusting flaming furzes fastened to long poles against their faces, till they are burnt to a coal, which is accompanied with the loudest acclamations of joy. At last, fire is set to the furz at the bottom of the stake, over which the profest are chained so high, that the top of the flame seldom reaches higher than the seat they sit on ; so that they rather seem roasted than burnt. This is called the *Auto de Fe*, or act of Faith, and may be filed the last act of the inquisitorial tragedy.

It is a kind of goal delivery, appointed as often as a competent number of prisoners in the inquisition are convicted of heresy, either by their own voluntary or extorted confession, or on the evidence of certain witnesses ; it is the utmost exertion of priestly tyranny, and a reproach to humanity itself.



REVOLUTIONS and other MEMORABLE EVENTS.

SPAIN is a name immediately derived from *Espania*, or *Hispania*, which is supposed to have been given to this country first by the Phœnicians, from the vast number of lapwings found here ; *Sepana* in the Phœnician language signifying a lapwing ; and, in confirmation of this opinion, it is observed, that upon the emperor Adrian's medals, the lapwing is the device for Spain : but the most antient names of this country upon record are *Iberia* and *Hesperia* : the name *Iberia* is supposed to have been given it from the river *Iberus*, now called the *Ebro* ; and it was called *Hesperia* by the Greeks, from its western situation in regard to them ; *Hesperus* signifying the western or Evening star.

With regard to the original inhabitants of this country, it is reasonable to suppose, that

they came from Gaul, or from the coast of Barbary. The Phœnicians, or Canaanites, were the next who planted colonies in Spain; and who, being obliged to abandon their own country to the Israelites, coasted along the Mediterranean sea, and settling themselves first at Carthage, on the coast of Africa, traded with the inhabitants of this country, built several towns and fortresses in it, and planted colonies on the coast, about the time of the building of Rome, and 750 years before Christ.

The native Spaniards, being exasperated at the encroachment of the Phœnicians, entered into a general confederacy against them, and had well nigh driven them out of their country, when the Phœnicians called in the Carthaginians to their assistance, about 520 years before the Christian era, and in a very few years made a conquest of all the south of Spain. The intestine wars which then raged among the Spaniards rendered them an easy prey to several other warlike and maritime nations; some of which came and settled in various parts of the kingdom, while others were contented with carrying off their gold and silver. The Celtiberians, in East Spain, in order to secure their possessions, entered into an alliance with the Romans, and commenced a war against the Carthaginians both in Spain and Sicily, which obtained the name of the first Punic war. This ended in a general peace, wherein it was agreed that the river Iberus should be the

the boundary between the Carthaginians and Romans.

About 218 years before Christ, the Carthaginians, under the celebrated Hannibal, besieging and destroying Saguntum, occasioned the second Punic war. The Romans however soon became sovereigns of Spain, and continued so until the year of Christ 400; about which time, the Goths, Vandals, and other northern nations broke in upon the Roman empire, and made a conquest of Spain. The Gothic government remained in great glory near 300 years, and was then subverted by the Moors. Roderic, at that time king of the Goths, having committed a rape on Florinda, daughter of count Julian, the governor of Mauritania, that disgusted nobleman, in revenge, entered into a confederacy with the Saracens, or Moors, and invited them to invade Spain, which was accordingly done, with an army of six hundred thousand men, who engaged Roderic, and gained a complete victory. They immediately subdued all Spain, except the northern provinces; but Pelagius, a noble Spaniard, having recovered Leon from those infidels, took upon him the title of king of Leon. His successors by degrees enlarged that dominion, and erected not only the earldom of Barcelona, but the kingdoms of Arragon and Navarre. The Moors, however, were not entirely conquered until the year 1491, when the city of Granada was taken by Ferdinand and Isabella, who had united all the petty king-

doms of Spain into one, by their marriage, and were succeeded in their united kingdoms by their grandson, Charles the Fifth, archduke of Austria, afterwards emperor of Germany.

By the articles for the surrender of Granada, Boabdil, king of the Moors, with his subjects, submitted to do homage to Ferdinand and Isabella, on condition they might retain the possession of their estates, be governed by their own laws, and have the free exercise of their religion. But they were compelled, either to turn Christians, or to leave the kingdom; whereupon several hundred thousand of them transported themselves to Africa, and the Jews were banished to Portugal.

At this time America was discovered by Columbus, the greatest part of which was conquered by such barbarous and treacherous means, as must fix an eternal odium on the Spanish nation, though it made such an immense encrease to that monarchy. The kingdom of Navarre was their next acquisition, and soon after they obtained the dominion of Naples in Italy. Thus all the petty kingdoms of Spain, that of Portugal excepted, were united in one monarchy. Ferdinand and Isabella reigned thirty years, and, after the death of Isabella, in 1504, the kingdom devolved to Philip, son of the emperor Maximilian, who had married Joanna, the daughter of Isabella, and in her right succeeded to the kingdom of Castile. But he dying in two years, Ferdinand

again

again took the reins of government, and held them until his death in the year 1516. Upon his decease, Charles, the son of Philip, came from Flanders, and as soon as he arrived in Spain, was proclaimed king of the united kingdoms. In 1519, on the death of Maximilian, Charles was elected to the imperial throne, and became thereby one of the greatest monarchs that ever was in Europe. In his reign happened a greater rebellion than has since been known in the kingdom of Spain. It was raised by the common people, and though by the court denominated a rebellion, might perhaps more justly be stiled a struggle for the recovery of their lost privileges. But for want of experienced leaders, as well as through the bravery of Charles, it was easily suppressed; and therefore served only to strengthen and confirm the unlimited power of that monarch. He was at the same time engaged in a war with France, which turned also to his advantage by taking king Francis prisoner. In 1556, after a reign of forty years, he resigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and the dominions of Spain to his son Philip; retiring himself to the monastery of St Just, where he died two years after.

His son, Philip II. attempting to govern as arbitrarily in the Netherlands, as he did in Spain, and at the same time introducing a kind of inquisition for the suppression of the protestants, who were very numerous, occasioned a general insurrection and revolt of the Dutch, who

who, by the assistance of England and France, formed themselves into that republican government, in which they have continued ever since. In the year 1588, Philip fitted out that famous fleet, called the Invincible Armada, with which he intended to invade England, but by the bravery of the English, and the storms at sea, it was almost totally destroyed. He afterwards entered into a war with France, with as little success: but, upon the death of Henry, king of Portugal, in the year 1579, he invaded that kingdom, which he claimed as son and heir of Isabella, daughter of Emanuel, king of Portugal; and though the Braganza family were thought to have a better title, they were, at that time, unable to oppose Philip's usurpation, whereby he became possessed of the Spice islands, and other Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, as well as of Guinea in Africa, and Brazil in South America. This monarch married Mary, queen of England, and after her death, courted her sister, queen Elizabeth. He was guilty of several oppressions and cruelties to his Spanish subjects, especially those in the kingdom of Arragon, for presuming to assert their liberties; and after a troublesome and inglorious reign of forty-two years, he died, leaving his son Philip III. his successor, under whose reign no remarkable event happened, except the expulsion of nine hundred thousand Moors, which Philip judged necessary, as they actually exceeded the number of Roman catholics in his dominions, especially in the maritime provinces.

Philip

Philip IV. his son and successor, though involved in war during his whole reign, was so much addicted to pleasure, that his enemies obtained several considerable advantages over him. The Dutch in particular, who had revolted from his grandfather, gained such successes, that at the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, they were acknowledged independent states. In the mean time the Catalans took up arms in defence of their antient liberties, but were at last obliged to submit. In the year 1640, Portugal revolted, John IV. duke of Braganza, having found means to expel the Spaniards, and ascend that throne. In this revolution he was so well supported by the French and English, that Portugal soon raised itself again to an independent monarchy, and has continued so ever since.

In the year 1647, Naples was almost alienated from the Spanish dominions, by means of Massinello, a fisherman, who promoted an insurrection on account of some duties that were laid on fish and fruit, and reduced the whole country to his obedience; but by the dexterous conduct of the Spanish governor, Massinello was seized, and the insurrection soon subsided. In the year 1650, the English invaded the island of Jamaica, and took it from the Spaniards, Spain being engaged in a war with France also, lost the province of Artois, and several towns in the Netherlands, which, on the Pyrenean treaty, in 1660, were confirmed to the French, and thereupon Lewis XIV. married the eldest Infanta of Spain, Maria Theresia, but they both renounce

nounced all future pretensions to the succession of the Spanish monarchy for them and their heirs.

Lewis, however, not long after made another descent upon the Spanish Netherlands, and took several places, which were all confirmed to him by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668. In 1672, the Spaniards lost Conde, Cambray; St. Omers; and all Franche Comté.

In 1672, Spain entered into a confederacy with the emperor and empire, England, Holland, and the northern crowns; against France, but the allies were defeated at Flerus, in Flanders, before the English army had joined them. During the course of the two following years, the French not only took Mons, and Namur, but gained a complete victory over the confederates, at the battle of Steinkirk. In 1695, Namur was re-taken by king William, who commanded the allies: the French, on the other hand, took Deynse, and Dixmunde, bombarded Brussels, and made fourteen battalions of the allies prisoners. The year 1697 was very successful to the French: they not only got possession Aeth, in Flanders, and Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, in Spain, but plundered Carthagena, in America, of an immense treasure. But towards the close of the year, they consented to a peace, restored Catalonia, and all the places they had taken in Flanders, to the crown of Spain; which peace was concluded at Ryswick.

The king of Spain, being at this time in a declining state of health, and the Dutch being apprehensive that Lewis XIV. would seize on Flanders, and the whole Spanish monarchy, upon the death of his Catholic majesty, persuaded the king of England, William III. to enter into a treaty with the French king, for a partition of the Spanish dominions, between the emperor, the duke of Bavaria, and his most christian majesty; each of whom pretended a right to the succession, which, coming to the knowledge of the Spanish king, he made his will, and gave the whole monarchy to Philip, duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin of France, and grandson of Lewis XIV.

On the death of the king of Spain, in 1700, Lewis XIV. immediately seized on all the Spanish dominions, for his grandson Philip, and caused him to be proclaimed king. This proceeding alarmed both the emperor, and the maritime powers. The emperor dreaded this increase of power to the house of Bourbon, and the maritime powers were no less apprehensive that Spanish America would fall into the hands of the French. The imperialists insisted that the king's will had been forged, or executed when he was non-compos: a war ensued: they marched an army over the Alps into Italy, in order to recover the Spanish territories there, from the French.

During this war the allies were very successful, both in Italy and Flanders, and the emperor

peror Leopold, with his son Joseph, having resigned their interest in the Spanish monarchy to the archduke Charles, he was accordingly proclaimed king of Spain, in 1703, and acknowledged as such by the English, the Dutch, and the Spanish states in Italy. He was conducted to Spain by a British fleet. Twelve thousand English and Dutch were afterwards embarked, in order to join the Portuguese, and invade Spain. The confederate fleet, commanded by Sir George Rooke, took Gibraltar on the 11th of July, and on the 13th of August entirely defeated the Spanish fleet near Malaga. The confederate forces, under the command of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, were at the same time no less successful in Flanders. They marched to the banks of the Danube, and obtained that memorable victory at Hochstet, where the French and Bavarians were routed, and the elector of Bavaria driven out of his dominions, of which the imperialists took possession in the year 1704. On the 5th of May died Leopold, emperor of Germany, and was succeeded by his eldest son Joseph, king of the Romans.

On July the 23d, 1705, king Charles and the prince of Hesse Darmstadt, with a considerable army, embarked on board the confederate fleet at Lisbon, commanded by Sir George Rooke, and having landed at Barcelona, attacked and took the fort of Montjoy, after which the city surrendered to king Charles, but the prince of Hesse was killed. The whole province

vince of Catalonia, soon after, declared for king Charles, as did the province of Valencia, on the approach of the earl of Peterborough. In the spring following, king Philip laid siege to Barcelona, which was so well defended by Charles, that Philip was obliged to raise the siege, and retire precipitately to France. Whereupon the allied army, on the side of Portugal, marched immediately to Madrid, where they proclaimed king Charles III. and invited that prince to come and take possession of the capital; but the province of Arragon declaring for him at the same time, he marched thither, where he staid so long, that king Philip returned from France, with a very powerful army, and forced the allies to evacuate Madrid.

The French, in the mean while, having taken every town of the duke of Savoy, except Turin, laid siege to that place; upon which, prince Eugene gave them battle in their trenches, on the 7th of September, and gained a compleat victory. The allies, under the command of the duke of Marborough, gained also several signal advantages over the French in the Netherlands. Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Bruges, and Antwerp, opened their gates, proclaiming king Charles III. their sovereign. Before the end of the campaign, the Spanish islands of Majorca and Ivica were reduced to his obedience, by the British admiral, Sir John Leake. In the beginning of 1707, the allied army in Spain, commanded by the Marquis das Minas, and the earl of Galway, was totally defeated, at Al-
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manza,

manza, in Castile, by the French and Spaniards, and all Spain was entirely lost, except Catalonia.

In 1708, the French surprized the cities of Ghent and Bruges; but their army being defeated at Oudenard, and the city of Lisle taken by the allies, Ghent and Bruges were recovered. About the same time, Sir John Leake reduced the Spanish island of Sardinia to the obedience of king Charles. On the 7th of May, 1709, the allies on the side of Portugal were defeated at Caya by king Philips's forces. On the other hand, Tournay in Flanders was taken by the allies, and prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough obtained a compleat victory over the French, commanded by the marshals Villars and Boufflers, at Malplaquet, and the city of Mons was taken by the allies on the 21st of October.

In the campaign of 1710, Douay and Bethune in the Netherlands were taken by the allies; and general Stanhope, commander for king Charles, gained two victories over king Philip in Spain, after which he took possession of Madrid; but the Portuguese refusing to march into Spain and join him, Charles was obliged to abandon Madrid, and retire towards Catalonia, being followed by the army: but the English, commanded by general Stanhope, having been separated from that part of the allied army commanded by general Staremberg, were surrounded by king Philip's forces, in the
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town of Brihuega, and made prisoners of war. Staremburg, in the mean time, receiving advice of the march of the Spaniards, to surprize the English in Brihuega, marched to their relief; and finding the English had surrendered a little before, he engaged the French and Spaniards, at Villa Vitiosa, and defeated them: but understanding that they were soon to be reinforced, he continued his march into Catalonia, whither king Charles had retreated some time before. In the mean time the towns of Aire and St. Venant, in Flanders, surrendered to the allies.

In 1711, the French having plundered the town of St. Sebastian, and several other rich settlements of the Portuguese, in Brazil, the king of Portugal thought fit to enter into a treaty of peace with the French, without the concurrence of the allies, who made themselves masters of Bouchain, in the Netherlands, during this campaign; and the following winter the French made proposals of peace to the British court, about which time the emperor Joseph died, and his brother king Charles was elected emperor at Franckfort, upon the 12th of October, 1711.

By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Philip was acknowledged king of Spain by all the confederates, except the emperor. The allies contented themselves with such limitations and restrictions as might keep the two monarchies of France and Spain disunited, though a treaty of

partition may be said to have taken place at last: for, by the articles of peace, Philip was left in possession of Spain only, and its American colonies, and settlements in the East-Indies; the Spanish dominions in Italy, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, were dismembered from the monarchy, which had also lost the island of Minorca, and the fortress of Gibraltar, both which places were ceded to Great-Britain. The duke of Savoy was put in possession of the island of Sicily, with the title of king; and the emperor Charles had Milan, Naples, and Sardinia.

Though, by the peace of Utrecht, Philip was left in possession of the greatest and most important part of the Spanish monarchy, yet some obstinate enemies still remained to be reduced. The inhabitants of Catalonia refused to acknowledge him; and finding themselves abandoned by their allies, solicited the assistance of the grand Signior, in hopes of establishing themselves into an independent state. Their example was followed by the island of Majorca: but the province of Catalonia was reduced to the obedience of king Philip, by the duke of Berwick, in the year 1714; and Majorca was compelled to submit to that prince in 1715.

The reduction of Catalonia restored tranquility to Spain, which had been harassed for twelve years by a most cruel and bloody war. Philip, by that conquest, finding himself seated upon the throne, began to turn his thoughts towards

wards the reunion of his Italian dominions, which, with the utmost regret, he had seen wrested from him. With a view to this reunion, his first wife, Maria Louisa, daughter to the duke of Savoy, dying in 1714, he married, the same year, the princess Elizabeth Farnese, heiress of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany; which match being negotiated by Alberoni, an Italian ecclesiastic, the queen procured a cardinal's cap for him, and by her influence he soon after became prime minister of Spain.

Philip having now increased his navy, and being urged by Alberoni to renew the war in Italy against the emperor Charles, who gave just foundation for a rupture, by still retaining the title of king of Spain, by creating Spanish grandees, by protecting those who were disaffected to Philip, and by punishing those who remained faithful to him, with the forfeiture of their estates in Flanders and Italy, the king, in 1717, invaded the island of Sardinia, and made a conquest of it. The next year, he invaded Sicily, and made a conquest of the greatest part of that island; upon which the emperor, Great-Britain, France, and Holland, entered into a confederacy against Spain, which confederacy was called the quadruple alliance; and the British admiral, Sir George Byng, being sent to the Mediterranean with a strong squadron, and coming up with the Spanish fleet in the Streight of Messina, engaged them, in July, 1718, and took eleven, and burnt six of their men of war. He also transported a body of Germans to Sicily,

ly, to oppose the Spanish general the marquis de Leyde ; and several smart engagements happened there between the Germans and the Spaniards.

In the mean time the French invaded Spain on the side of Guipuscoa, took Port Passage, and burnt several Spanish men of war ; they afterwards took Fontarabia, and St. Sebastians, and reduced the whole province of Guipuscoa. The British forces, commanded by lord Cobham, also made a descent upon Spain, and took Vigo, and there reembarked. On the other hand, the Spaniards embarked six thousand men, with a design to invade Britain, in favour of the Pretender, of which forces three hundred only landed in Scotland, and were joined by a small body of highlanders : but they were soon defeated and dispersed. About the same time, a few ships sailed from Vigo to the coast of Brittany, in hopes of raising an insurrection in that province against the duke of Orleans, regent of France : but this attempt had no better success than the other. King Philip, at length, finding himself unable to resist so potent a confederacy, entered into a treaty with the allies, and consented to evacuate Sicily and Sardinia, upon which Sicily was allotted to the emperor, and the king of Sicily made king of Sardinia : the French restored to Spain all their acquisitions in Guipuscoa : and cardinal Alberoni, who had been the occasion of this war, was soon after disgraced and obliged to return to Italy. In the mean time, Philip sent the marquis de
Leyde

Leyde with a considerable fleet and army, to the relief of Ceuta, which had been besieged for twenty-six years by the Moors. The Spanish troops, a few days after their arrival, totally routed and dispersed the Moors, and made themselves masters of their intrenched camp, and all their artillery.

As the duke of Orleans, since the disgrace of Alberoni, had seemingly favoured the pretensions of Spain, Philip, the following year, at his solicitation, contracted a double alliance with the branches of the house of Bourbon in France. The infanta of Spain, though then only three years of age, was sent to France, as future queen to Lewis XV. and two of the daughters of the duke of Orleans arrived in Spain to be married to the prince of Asturias, and the infant Don Carlos. The succession of this last to the duchies of Parma and Tuscany, seemed now to be the chief object of the court of Spain. This point and many others were to be settled at Cambray; but as the emperor, who had no inclination to gratify the Spaniards, purposely delayed the congress, Philip concluded a particular treaty with the court of Great-Britain, who, on having the assiento, or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with negroes renewed, agreed to restore the ships taken off Sicily.

Nothing memorable happened in Spain during the two following years; but in the beginning of the year 1724, Philip astonished all Europe,

Europe, by publickly abdicating his crown, before he was forty years of age, in favour of Don Lewis, prince of Asturias, who was then in the seventeenth year of his age; and who was accordingly proclaimed king at Madrid, to the great joy of the Spaniards: but this joy however was soon turned into mourning, by the unexpected death of the king, who died of the small-pox universally lamented, in the eighth month of his reign. Upon the death of Lewis, Philip was persuaded to resume the reins of government; and, in 1725, surprized all the powers of Europe, by concluding a particular treaty with the emperor at Vienna, by which he resigned all pretensions to Naples, Sicily, the low countries, and the Milanese. Charles, on the other hand, renounced all claim to Spain and the Indies; and besides promised to grant the investiture of Parma and Tuscany to Don Carlos. Philip soon after entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with the court of Vienna; to counterbalance which, the courts of Great-Britain, France, and Prussia, concluded a mutual alliance at Hanover.

The system of Europe by these treaties seemed again changed, especially as Philip was at this time greatly irritated against the French ministry, for sending back the infant queen to Spain, and marrying their king to the princess Lezenski, daughter to Stanislaus, king of Poland: he therefore now closely connected himself with the court of Vienna. Baron Riperda, who had concluded the Vienna treaty, on his return

return from thence, was created a duke, and grandee of Spain, and was entrusted with the departments of war, of the marine the finances, and the Indies : but his administration not being approved by the grandees, whose resentment he dreaded, he resigned his places, and took refuge in the house of Mr. Stanhope, the British ambassador, from whence he was taken by force, and imprisoned, but found means to escape ; and the British ambassador, in resentment for the breach of his privileges, left Madrid.

The emperor, who was offended with the opposition he met with from Great-Britain, in establishing an East-India company at Ostend, fomented differences between this court and Spain ; and was so successful, that, about the end of February, in the year 1727, the Spaniards laid siege to Gibraltar, which enterprize, however, they soon found to be above their strength ; and after four months in open trenches, were obliged to retire with disgrace. The Bishop of Frejus, afterwards known by the name of cardinal Fleury, was, at this time, labouring to bring about a general pacification among the powers of Europe, and had prevailed on the emperor, the king of Great-Britain, and the states-general, to agree with France, in signing the preliminaries for a peace ; and the Spaniards, who wanted a fair pretence to withdraw from Gibraltar, soon after acceded to these preliminaries. A general congress being then appointed to be held at Soissons, Philip sent three plenipotentiaries thither ; and soon after
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sent an ambassador for the first time to Russia, who concluded a treaty of commerce between the two nations.

As the negotiations at Soissons met with many interruptions, on account of the various claims of the different princes who had sent their plenipotentiaries thither; Philip, in 1729, concluded a particular treaty at Seville with Great-Britain and France, to which the states-general afterwards acceded. By this treaty, Philip promised no longer to countenance the Ostend company; and the other powers, in return, engaged to guarantee the succession of Don Carlos to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, and to assist in introducing 6000 Spaniards into these territories. The emperor, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing Spanish troops in Italy, was greatly offended with this treaty, and endeavoured by artifice to render it ineffectual. Accordingly, two years after, when the succession to Parma and Placentia opened to Don Carlos, by the death of the last duke of the Farnese family, the emperor's troops took possession of several fortified places in those dukedoms, under pretence that the widow of the late duke had been left with child by him. Charles, however, seeing no way of securing those duchies by negotiation, and being sensible that the cheat would soon be detected, agreed at length to suffer 6000 Spaniards to accompany Don Carlos into Italy, and also engaged to suppress the Ostend company, which had given so much offence; Great-Britain, on the other

other hand, engaging to guarantee the emperor's dominions in Italy. Soon after, a British fleet joined that of Spain, and conducted the infant Don Carlos to Leghorn, who quietly took possession of Parma, which had been destined to him as his inheritance ever since his birth.

The settlement of Don Carlos being accomplished, the court of Spain turned its views to the recovery of Oran. An army of 25,000 men was accordingly sent to Africa, under the command of the count de Montemar, who totally defeated the Moorish army, and, in less than a month, made himself master of the place, though it was defended by a garrison of 10,000 men. The recovery of their African possessions, was far from satisfying the ambition of the Spanish court, who now eagerly embraced an opportunity of breaking with the emperor, and extending their dominions in Italy. The throne of Poland becoming vacant, by the death of the elector of Saxony, the greatest part of the poles elected Stanislaus, who had formerly been king of Poland: but a few of the most powerful chose the new elector of Saxony, and the son of the late king. Stanislaus was supported by his son-in-law the king of France, who, on this occasion, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia. The emperor Charles, and the Czarina, espoused the cause of the other competitor.

The war which ensued, was very favourable to the Spaniards; who, in one campaign, made
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an entire conquest of the kingdom of Naples, in 1734. The year following, Don Carlos completed the conquest of Sicily, and was crowned king of the Two Sicilies at Palermo, the capital of the island. The emperor, in the mean time, being turned out of almost all his possessions in Lombardy and Tuscany, and being also unable to oppose the French armies on the Rhine, solicited the mediation of the maritime powers, who, by threatening to take part in the war, prevailed on the contending parties to agree to a suspension of arms, about the beginning of winter; and as the elector of Saxony was by this time securely fixed upon the throne of Poland, and the intercession of the maritime powers cut off all hopes from the French and Spaniards of enlarging their conquests in Italy and Germany, they were obliged to continue the armistice, and to negotiate a peace.

The preliminary articles of the treaty, which were settled by the courts of Vienna and Paris, being published in the year 1736, were far from being satisfactory to the court of Spain, because though they were allowed to keep Naples and Sicily, it was proposed they should restore Parma and Placentia to the emperor, and renounce all claim to Tuscany. The maritime powers, however, acquiescing in the disposition that had been made, Spain was obliged to submit; and the year following, upon the death of John Gaston de Medicis, the last male descendant of that illustrious family, the Spanish troops evacuated Tuscany, which by the treaty
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then negociating, was given to the duke of Lorraine and Bar, who, in the beginning of the preceding year, had married the arch-duchess Maria Theresa, the heiress of the family of Austria. In November, 1738, the peace, which had been negociating near three years, was concluded at Vienna. By this peace, Parma and Placentia were ceded in full propriety to the emperor, and his son-in-law was declared duke of Tuscany; the duke, in return, ceding his duchies of Bar and Lorraine to the exiled king Stanislaus, upon whose death they were to be annexed to the crown of France. The fiefs of the Tortonese and Vigevanasco were detached from the Milanese, in favour of the king of Sardinia, and Don Carlos was left in possession of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, with some places on the coast of Tuscany.

The treaty of Vienna was scarcely ratified, when Spain was threatned with a war by Great-Britain, on account of the disputes which for some time had subsisted between the two courts, about the freedom of commerce in America. The British court had for some years made loud complaints of the piracies and hostilities committed in the American seas by the Spanish guarda-costas, who, on trifling and false pretences, seized the British ships in their passage to their own colonies, and not only made prize of them, but treated their crews with the greatest inhumanity. The court of Spain, on the other hand, alledged, that the British merchants, in violation of solemn treaties, had, for many

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years, carried on a clandestine trade with the Spanish colonies in America, by which the commerce of Spain had been greatly prejudiced; that Spain was therefore greatly interested in putting a stop to such illicit traffic, and that those who were seized in carrying it on, could not justly complain of any injury.

Both nations insisted loudly on the injuries they had received, and the court of London was at length provoked to issue letters of reprisals against the Spaniards, their vessels, and effects. This step was soon followed by declarations of war at London and Madrid: and both nations began hostilities with great animosity. The Spaniards, at first, made some considerable advantages by the capture of a great number of English ships, but they were soon alarmed with the news of the loss of Porto Bello, which was taken in the beginning of December, 1739, by admiral Vernon. About the same time they suffered considerably by the ravages of the Barbary Corsairs on their coasts, and were threatened with the loss of their richest provinces in America, by a conspiracy, formed by one Cordova, who pretended to be descended from one of the ancient Incas of Peru. The conspiracy, however, was happily discovered, before it took effect, and the author of it put to death.

The following year, the Spaniards sent a fleet of eighteen ships of the line to the West-Indies, with a design, as was supposed, of attacking Jamaica. The French, likewise, though they

they professed a neutrality, sent two squadrons to the American seas, to act defensively, in favour of the Spaniards, while admiral Vernon bombarded Carthagena, and took Chagre. About the same time, general Oglethorpe, governor of Georgia, attacked fort St. Augustine, the capital of Spanish Florida: but after lying some weeks before the place, he was obliged to retire, with considerable loss. About the end of October, 1740, the English sent out a powerful fleet, to reinforce admiral Vernon, who, the year following, in the month of March, invested Carthagena by sea and land, with a fleet of 29 ships of the line, and an army of about 12,000 men: but the Spanish garrison, having been reinforced, and the season of the year being very unfavourable to troops in the field, the English, after a siege of some weeks, were obliged to retire with the loss of some thousand men. In the mean time, admiral Anson, who had sailed round Cape Horn, acted offensively against the Spanish settlements in the South-Sea.

About this time, Philip had published a memorial, claiming the succession of the hereditary dominions of the emperor Charles VI. who died in the month of October, and was succeeded by his daughter Maria Theresa, who took the title of queen of Hungary. All that the catholic king aimed at by this claim, was the securing of Lombardy for his third son Don Philip, which he thought would at this time be an easy prize, as the queen of Hungary was un-

expectedly attacked by the king of Prussia, and also by the elector of Bavaria, who was assisted by the kings of France and Poland. However, while the fate of Carthagera depended, the Spaniards made not the least efforts against their new enemy: but, upon receiving the news of the repulse of the English, they assembled a body of troops at Barcelona, which sailed for Naples, in November, under the command of the duke de Montemar. Those troops were reinforced the year following, 1742, from Spain, and being joined by the Neapolitans, formed an army of about 60,000 men. Montemar then advanced through the ecclesiastical state, as far as the Bolognese, but the king of Sardinia declaring for the queen of Hungary, and joining the Austrian army, the Spaniards were obliged to retreat in the end of the summer, to the kingdom of Naples, where, soon after their arrival, they lost their Neapolitan allies; Don Carlos being forced to agree to a neutrality, by a British Squadron, which threatened to bombard his capital.

In the mean time, Don Philip, after marching through France, at the head of 30,000 men, had now entered Savoy, and taken possession of Chambery, expecting to conquer that duchy, while the king of Sardinia was opposing Montemar: but the Piedmontese, having left the pursuit of Montemar, quickly attacked him, and obliged him to return to France. The Spaniards, notwithstanding the bad success of their arms, were still bent upon pursuing their ambitious

bitious views in Italy, where they supported their armies at a great expence, for several campaigns. The count de Gages and their other generals, instead of having any prospect of making conquests in that country, found themselves every year obliged to struggle with new obstacles, and any flattering successes they met with, were more than counter-ballanced, by the advantages gained by the enemy.

Admiral Vernon, after his return from Carthage, made a descent upon Cuba, and afterwards upon Panama, but without success. The Spaniards at St. Augustine, in the mean time, made an attempt upon Georgia, with two frigates, and thirty other vessels, on board of which were 3000 land-forces; but general Oglethorpe obliged them quickly to retire. In 1742, admiral Knowles made an attack upon La Guira, and Porto Cavallo, but was repulsed by the Spaniards with considerable loss; and the year following, upon the 11th of February, admiral Matthews attacked the Spanish and French fleets off Toulon, but the engagement was prevented from being general, by the French declining to come into the line, on one hand, and the backwardness of admiral Lestock on the other: however, the Spanish ships that engaged, were defeated by the English.

From this time nothing remarkable happened in the affairs of Spain, till the 11th of July, 1746, when Philip died at Madrid, in the 63d year of his age, and was succeeded by the only

surviving son of his first marriage, Don Ferdinand. By his second queen, Elizabeth of Farnese, Philip left three sons, Don Carlos, then king of the two Sicilies; Don Philip, duke of Parma and Placentia; and Don Lewis, who was created archbishop of Toledo, when an infant; but has since resigned that benefice, and obtained leave to quit the church. By the same queen, he also left three daughters, Maria Anna Victoria, the present queen of Portugal; Maria Theresa, in 1745, married to the Dauphin of France; but died in child-bed a few days after her father, and Maria Antonietta.

Ferdinand VI. who was about thirty-three years of age when he ascended the throne, began his reign with several acts of popularity, and soon published an edict, declaring, that he would fulfill the engagements of his predecessor with his allies. The Spaniards this campaign were twice defeated in Lombardy, with the loss of upwards of 20,000 men, killed and made prisoners, and had been forced by the Austrians to abandon Italy, and retire into Provence. Ferdinand, however, still continued the war, and imputing the disgrace of his arms to the misconduct of the count de Gages, recalled him, and gave the command to the marquis de la Mina. About the end of the year, he allowed the chamber of commerce to enter into a private treaty with the English South-Sea company, for supplying Spanish-America with negroes; but could not be prevailed upon by the
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king of Portugal, to agree to a separate peace with Great-Britain. His allies, the French, however, suffering greatly in the following year, 1747, by the destruction of their fleets, the ruin of their commerce, and a general famine, which obliged them to solicit a congress, he also gave his consent for a peace.

By the treaty of Aix la-Chapelle, which was concluded in October, 1748, and contained twenty-four articles, the queen of Hungary ceded to the infant Don Philip the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, but with this reserve, that if Philip should die without male issue, or he or his posterity should succeed to the throne of Spain or Sicily, those duchies should revert to the house of Austria. As the king of Sardinia had some pretensions to Placentia, and the Placentine, his cession was likewise necessary, which he gave, on condition that the territory should revert to him, if Philip should die without issue male, or his brother Don Carlos succeed to the crown of Spain. By other articles of the same treaty, the king of Sardinia, the republic of Genoa, and the duke of Modena were reinstated in their former possessions; and the assiento, or contract for negroes, with the British merchants, was granted for four years, as an equivalent for the same number of years which had been interrupted by the war.

Notwithstanding the peace of Aix la-Chapelle, Ferdinand still kept up all his land-forces,
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and gave orders for augmenting his marine, with the utmost diligence. The marquis de Ensenada, who was now prime minister, being sensible of the great prejudice the Spanish commerce sustained by the clandestine trade carried on by foreigners with the Spanish colonies, gave orders for guarding the American coasts more strictly than ever, which orders were not only disagreeable to the trading nations of Europe, but to the inhabitants of the colonies themselves, who, in 1749, rose up in arms, in the province of Caraccas, obliged the Spanish troops to retire into the fort of La Guira, and declared for a freedom of commerce. Upon the news of this insurrection, 1500 men were embarked at Cadiz, who, upon their arrival in America, were so successful as to quell the rebellion. The king, in the mean time, applied his chief attention to regulate the internal policy of his kingdom, and inspire his subjects with a spirit of industry. He particularly aimed at encouraging and promoting agriculture: and granted charters for establishing manufactures of fine woollen cloth; gave great encouragement to some British weavers and ship-carpenters, who had been tempted to go and settle in Spain, and he opened the communication between the two Castiles, by a fine road, forty-six miles in length, on which were no less than 283 aqueducts, and seven bridges of fine architecture; the whole being begun and finished, in five months, under the direction of the marquis de Ensenada.

In the mean time, the Spanish and British commissaries were employed in negotiating the disputed points betwixt the two courts, which were at length finally settled, by a treaty concluded at Madrid, on the fifth of October, 1750. By this treaty, the king of Great Britain gave up his claim to the four remaining years of the assiento contract, and to all the debts the king of Spain owed to the English company on that account, for an equivalent of 100,000 l. sterling. His catholic majesty engaged, to require from British subjects trading in his ports, no higher duties than they paid in the time of Charles the Second of Spain, and to allow the same subjects, to take salt on the island of Tortuga. All former treaties were confirmed, and the two princes promised to abolish all innovations that appeared to have been introduced into the reciprocal commerce of both nations.

The remaining part of Ferdinand's reign was barren of events. The British court were jealous of his attempts to introduce the woollen manufacture in Spain, and reclaimed their workmen, who had passed over thither. New disputes likewise arose between the two courts on account of the traffic carried on by British subjects with the Indians of the Moskito shore, who had never submitted to Spain, and claimed to act as a free nation. In 1754, the marquis de Ensenada was unexpectedly disgraced, and the department of the Indies, one of the places he enjoyed, was conferred on Don Richard

chard Wall, secretary of state for foreign affairs, who had lately returned from an embassy at the British court. About two years afterwards, a war breaking out between Great-Britain and France, Ferdinand declared on that occasion, that he would adhere to the strictest neutrality, though he was far from preserving the neutrality he professed, and was partial in favour of France in many instances.

Ferdinand was so affected with grief, upon the loss of his queen, who died about the end of the year 1758, that he entirely abandoned himself to melancholy; and, neglecting both exercise and food, was thrown into a dangerous distemper, which, after preying upon him several months, put a period to his life, on the 10th of August, 1759; and as he left no issue, was succeeded by his brother Charles, king of the Two Sicilies, who resigned that kingdom, and disjointed it from the monarchy of Spain, by a solemn deed, in favour of his third son setting aside his eldest son, on account of his weakness of mind, and reserving his second son for the succession of Spain. The principal transactions of the present reign, relating chiefly to the war, which broke out between Great Britain and Spain, in the beginning of the year 162, have been already mentioned; it is therefore necessary to observe here in general, that, as the Spaniards were unsuccessful in that war, they were obliged, before the close of the same year, to purchase a peace, by making

making a cession to Great Britain of all Florida, by allowing his Britannic Majesty's subjects to cut logwood in the Bay of Campeachy; and by renouncing all pretensions to a fishery upon the coast of Newfoundland. So much for the affairs of Spain.

The name PORTUGAL, is supposed to have been derived from *Portus Calis*, the ancient name of Porto, or Oporto, which was probably a contraction and corruption of *Portus Gallorum*, a name that might have been given to this town, from having been the port which the Gauls frequented in the time of the Romans. The Roman name for the country was, *Lusitania*, which some suppose to be a word compounded of the Phœnician word *Lus*, which signifies an *almond*, with which fruit this country abounds, and *Tannia*, the Greek word for a *country*. Others derive the name *Lusitania* from *Lyfus*, the son of Bacchus, and will have it to signify *the country of wine*.

The Carthaginians and Romans successively possessed this country; the Romans were expelled by the Suevi, a northern nation, who were soon driven out of Portugal by the Goths, who possessed this, with the rest of Spain, till the Moors made a conquest of the whole country in the eighth century. The generals of the Moors divided Portugal, as they did the rest of Spain, into abundance of little principalities; every captain assuming the title of a king, and exercising a sovereign power in that part of the country

country he had possessed himself of by force of arms.

In the year 1093, Alphonso VI. king of Leon, and the first of Castile, having made a conquest of the northern provinces of Portugal, constituted Henry, a younger son of Robert, duke of Burgundy, whose father was Robert king of France, earl of Portugal, for the signal service he had performed against the infidels. In 1139, Alphonso, the son of Henry, having freed himself from the subjection of the king of Castile, and reduced most of the southern part of Portugal, as far as the mountains of Algarve, was proclaimed by his army, king of Portugal, and his successors continued the war with the Moors, till they got possession of all that country.

The crown continued in this line, till the death of Ferdinand, without issue male, in 1383, when his natural brother, John, usurped the throne, in 1385. This prince maintained a war against the Castilians, and being assisted by the duke of Lancaster, with a gallant army, from England, carried his conquests into the heart of Castile. At length, a peace being agreed on between the crowns of Castile and Portugal, John entered upon an expedition against the Moors in Africa, and took the town of Ceuta. The Madeira islands, together with the Azores, or western isles, being discovered in this reign, were added to the kingdom of Portugal, together with the coast of Guinea.

John

John dying in 1433, was succeeded by his son Edward, who died of the plague, in 1438.

Upon the death of Edward, his son Alphonso succeeded to the crown : this prince invaded Morocco, and took the towns of Tangier, Arcilla, Alcaſſar, and ſeveral others on the coaſt of Africa, from the Moors. He afterwards laid claim to the crown of Caſtile, invaded that kingdom, and reduced many cities under his ſubjection, but was at length driven out of that country by Ferdinand and Iſabella, king and queen of Caſtile and Arragon ; and, dying in 1481, was ſucceeded by his ſon John, who projected the tracing out a way to the Eaſt-Indies, round Africa by the Cape of Good Hope. He died in the year 1495, and leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his couſin Emanuel, ſon of the duke of Viſco, and grandſon of king Edward. He was oppoſed in his ſucceſſion to the throne by the emperor Maximilian, who laid claim to the crown, as being the ſon of Eleonora, the daughter of king Edward : but the Portugueſe, being averſe to a ſtranger, and finding in Emanuel all thoſe qualifications requiſite in a prince, adhered to him. He married Iſabella, eldeſt daughter of Ferdinand the Catholic, who it is ſaid perſuaded him to baniſh the Jews and Moors out of Portugal, on pain of being made ſlaves, if they remained in the kingdom after a certain day ; upon which the Moors went over to Africa. In the reign of Emanuel, Portugal arrived at its higheſt pitch of glory : for then it was, the fleets of Portugal were con-

directed round the Cape of Good Hope to India, by the celebrated Vasco de Gama, by which discoveries the Portuguese became sole masters of the trade between India and Europe, which was before carried on by the way of Egypt, whether the riches of India being brought, were transported by the Venetians, Genoese, and other maritime powers in the Mediterranean, to Europe. In making the voyage to the East-Indies, the Portuguese casually discovered Brazil in America, and several rich provinces on the coast of Africa, from all which there flowed such immense treasures to Portugal, during this reign, that it obtained the name of the golden age.

King Emanuel dying in 1521, was succeeded by his son John III. who had a long, peaceful and happy reign, during which he applied himself to cultivate the arts and sciences at home, and to plant colonies in the countries that had been discovered, in his father's reign, in Asia, Africa, and America. He also sent out a multitude of missionaries, who planted the christian religion in China, India, the coast of Africa, and Brazil, in which he was no less successful than in his civil government: but dying, in 1557, he was succeeded by his grandson Sebastian, an infant of three years of age, cardinal Henry, his uncle, having the administration during his minority.

This prince, as soon as he arrived at the years of manhood, appeared much addicted to martial

tial exploits, and went over into Africa, at the head of a powerful army, at the instance of Mulley Hamet, king of Morocco, who had been deposed by Mulley Mulucco, his uncle, and joining Mulley Hamet, both kings attacked the usurper with their united forces; but were defeated; Don Sebastian, and most of the Portuguese nobility, together with Mulley Hamet, the deposed prince, being killed in the engagement, which Mulley Mulucco, the usurper, did not survive, but died of a fever before the engagement was well over. Don Sebastian, leaving no issue, was succeeded by cardinal Henry, his uncle, the only surviving male of the royal family; and he dying after a short reign of two years, Philip II. king of Spain, sent the duke of Alva into Portugal, at the head of an army, and in 1580 took possession of that kingdom, which he claimed in right of his mother. The Portuguese indeed set up Anthony, natural son to the late king John III. who received some assistance from England, in order to maintain his pretensions; but the king of Spain was too powerful for his competitor, who was obliged to quit his claim to the crown of Portugal.

Philip maintained his dominion over Portugal till he died, as did his son Philip III. of Spain, and II. of Portugal. Philip IV. his grandson, also succeeded quietly to the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, which he enjoyed for nineteen years. In the mean time, the Dutch, having shaken off the Spanish yoke, possessed themselves of the greatest part of the

settlements of the Portuguese, who were provoked to the last degree; and finding Spain much weakened by a long and expensive war with France, and the revolt of the Catalans, embraced that opportunity of delivering their country from a foreign yoke. The duke of Braganza, being next heir in blood to their former princes, they raised him to the throne, in the year 1640, when, on the first day of December, he was proclaimed by the name of John IV.

King John having made war upon the Dutch, whom he drove out of Brazil, died in 1656, leaving two sons, Don Alphonso, his eldest son, who succeeded him, Don Pedro, and one daughter, named Catharine, afterwards married to Charles II. king of Great-Britain. Alphonso being very young at his father's death, reigned some time under the guardianship of his mother, who was very successful, during her administration, against Spain: for Philip IV, having made peace with France, revived his claim upon Portugal, and invaded that kingdom, but was defeated in several engagements, the most important victory being that at Villa Vitiosa, in the year 1666, which obliged Philip to renounce all his pretensions to the crown of Portugal.

King Alphonso coming of age, the queen Dowager, who did not approve of his conduct, retired into a convent, where she died; after which Alphonso married the princess of Nemours,

mours, of the house of Savoy, who conspired with Don Pedro against the king, whom they deposed, in 1668, and confined a prisoner in the island of Tercera, from whence he was brought back some time after, and died in the castle of Cintra, in December 1683. Don Pedro, having deposed his brother, procured a dispensation from the pope, and married the queen, in her husband's life-time, and took upon himself the administration of the government, in the king's name, till the death of that unhappy prince, upon which he caused himself to be proclaimed king of Portugal.

In the first war between the confederates and France, which broke out in 1689, Portugal stood neuter. In the second war, the Portuguese came into the grand alliance in 1703, on the following conditions, viz. that the archduke Charles, who was to be proclaimed king of Spain, should be sent to Portugal, with an army of twelve thousand English and Dutch troops; that the allies should take into their pay thirteen thousand Portuguese, and fit out a large fleet to protect the coasts of Portugal. King Charles was accordingly conveyed to Portugal, by the confederate fleet, with the forces agreed on. But the English and Dutch, who had promised themselves great advantages from the king of Portugal's accession to the grand alliance, found themselves greatly disappointed; not a third part of the horses were provided for remounting their cavalry, that had been promised. The Portuguese generals, and every go-

vernor of a province, through which they passed, insisted upon commanding the confederate generals, and insisted moreover that the Portuguese forces should take the right hand of the allies. They would not suffer the English and Dutch troops to march in a body; but distributed them in their defenceless frontier towns, where many of them were made prisoners by the enemy; upon which duke Schomberg, who commanded the English troops, desired to be recalled, and the earl of Galway was sent over in his room, who submitted to all the indignities the Portuguese were pleased to impose on the forces of Great-Britain and Holland; and as the Portuguese did not bring into the field half the forces they had engaged to furnish, and their horses usually ran away, they contributed very little to the advancement of the cause of the allies.

Pedro dying in 1706, was succeeded by his son John; and that prince dying in 1750, his eldest son Joseph, the present king, mounted the throne of Portugal. In the year 1762, the kings of France and Spain, by repeated memorials, required the king of Portugal to join in the confederacy against Great-Britain, and to admit Spanish troops into the principal towns of Portugal; and upon his Portuguese majesty's refusing to comply with those extraordinary demands, the French and Spaniards declared war upon Portugal, which they entered with several considerable armies; but the treaty of peace, concluded

concluded in February, 1763, put a period to their progress in that kingdom.



C H A P. IV.

Of I T A L Y.

S E C T. I.

A general Account of I T A L Y.

ITALY, the antient seat of the Roman empire, and perhaps the most celebrated spot of ground on the globe, is agreeably and advantageously situated in the south of Europe, lying between the 37th and 46th degrees of north latitude, and between the 7th and 19th degrees of east longitude.

Its greatest length from Ausse in the duchy of Savoy in the north, to Cape Spartivento in Calabria in the south, is about 900 miles; and its greatest breadth, from Chamberry in Savoy, to Udina in Venice, is computed to be 560 miles.

Its boundaries are, on the north and north-west the Alps, and the river Var, which separate it from France and Switzerland: the gulph
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of Venice on the east; and on the south and west, the Mediterranean sea.

This country consists of the following sovereignties and principalities. 1. The duchy of Savoy. 2. The principality of Piedmont. 3. The duchy of Montferrat. 4. The duchy of Milan. 5. The republic of Venice. 6. The duchy of Mantua. 7. The duchy of Parma. 8. The republic of Genoa. 9. The duchy of Modena. 10. The dukedom of Tuscany. 11. The Pope's territories. 12. The republics of Lucca and St. Marino. 13. The kingdom of Naples.

The duchy of Savoy, subject to the king of Sardinia, is commonly divided into six parts. 1. Savoy Proper. 2. Geneva. 3. Chablais. 4. Tarantaise, 5. Maurienne, and 6. Fofigny.

The principal cities in this duchy, are, Chambery, its metropolis; Montmelian, and Aix, in Savoy Proper: Annecy in Geneva: Thonon in Chablais: Moustriers in Tarantaise: St. John de Maurienne and Bonneville in Fofigny.

The principality of Piedmont, subject to the king of Sardinia, contains Piedmont Proper, Verceil, the principality of Masseran, the marquisate of Ivrea, Asti, the marquisates of Susa and Saluzzo, Vaudois, Nice, Tende, and Aoste.

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The chief cities in this principality are, Turin the metropolis, and residence of the king of Sardinia, Pignerol, Carignan, in Piedmont-*Proper*; Verceil, Masseran, Ivrea, Asti, Susa, Saluzzo, Nice, Tende and Aoste, are the chief cities of their respective provinces; and Vaudois has for its capital Pragelas, or Cluson.

The duchy of Montferrat, subject to the king of Sardinia, contains the cities of Alby, Casal, Aqui, and Trino.

The duchy of Milan contains the following territories: Milanese *Proper*, Pavisan, Lodosan, Cremonese, Comasco, Angeira, Vigevanes, Novares, subject to the queen of Hungary; and Tortonese, Alexandrin, and Laumellin, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

The chief cities of this duchy are Milan the metropolis, Pavia, Lodi, Cremona, Como, Angeira, Vigevanes, Novara, Tortona, Alexandria, and Laumelo.

Venice, one of the most considerable republics in the world, comprehends the following districts: Dodago, or the duchy of Venice; Paduan, Veronese, Vicentino, Bresciano, Bergamasco, Cremasco, Friuli, part of Istria, and Udinese.

The chief cities belonging to this republic are, Venice, the capital, Padua, Verona, Vicenza, Brescia, Bergamo, Crema, Aquileia,
Cabo

Cabo de Istria, and Udina; and on the coast of Dalmatia, the towns of Zara, Nona, Spalatto, Sebenico, and Cattara; likewise belong to this republic.

The duchy of Mantua, which belongs to the house of Austria, contains the following cities and territories: Mantua, Sabionetta and Guastalla, Bozzolo and Castiglione.

In the duchy of Parma, are the territories of Parmesan and Placentin, Buceto and Valditaro. The chief cities are, Parma, the capital; Placentia, Burgo, St. Domingo, and Valditaro.

The republic of Genoa contains, the principalities of Monaco, and Oneglia, the marquise of Final, the territories of Ventimiglia, Noli, Savona, Genoa, Brugnato, St. Remo, Vado, Albenga, Rapallo, Lavigna, and Spizia, in each of which is a city which gives name to its respective territory.

The dukedom of Tuscany contains, Florentine, Siennese and Pisan, the principality of Piombino, Massa Carara, and Presidii. The chief towns are Florence, Sienna, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Massa, and Orbitello.

The pope's dominions are Campania of Rome, St. Peter's Patrimony, Umbria or Spoleto, Ancona, Urbino, Romania, Bolognese and Ferrarese. The chief cities are Rome, the capital of all Italy, Tivoli, Fiescatti, Ostia, Albano,

Albano, Viterbo, Civita Vecchia, Castro, Orvieto, Aquapendente, Spoleto, Narni, Perugia, Ancona, Loreto, Urbino, Pesaro, Ravenna, Bologna, Ferrara and Comachio.

Lucca and St. Marino are very inconsiderable republics.

The kingdom of Naples contains, Abruzzo farther, Abruzzo nigher, Molise, Capitinat, Barri, Otranto, Lavoro, Principat farther, Principat hither, Basilicate, Calabria nigher, and Calabria farther,

The chief cities in the kingdom of Naples are, Aquila, Atri, Compoli, and Civita de Ponna, in Abruzzo farther: Chieti, Lanecano, and Solmona, famous for the birth of Ovid: Trivento, Isernia and Molize, in the county of Molize: Manfredina, Vieste, Termoli, Civita Mare, Rhodia and Porto Græco, and the towns of Lucera, St. Angelo, and Troja, in Capitinat: Barri and Trani in the province of Barri: Otranto, in the province of Otranto: Naples, the residence of the king of the two Sicilies, Capua and Gaieta in Lavora: Benevento in the farther Principat: Salerno and Cava, in the hither Principat: Cerenza, Potenza and Molfi, in Basilicate: Cosenza, in Calabria nigher: Rhegio, St. Severina and Crotona, in farther Calabria.

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The most considerable islands belonging to Italy are, Sicily, Sardinia, Corfica, Malta, and the Lipari islands.

Sicily, subject to the king of Naples, is divided into three parts, Val de Mazara, Val de Demona, and Val de Noto, and contains the cities of Palermo, Messina, Catania, Syracuse and Noto.

Sardinia, which is subject to the king of Sardinia, is divided into two parts, Cabo de Cagliari, and Cabo de Logodari, and its chief towns are Cagliari, Oristagni, Sassari, and Castel Aragonese.

In Corfica are the towns of Bastia and Bonifacio.

The isle of Malta belongs to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem; Valetta is the capital, and is reckoned one of the strongest places in the universe.

The principal rivers in Italy are, 1st, the Po, which rises in Piedmont, and running north, passes by Turin, then east through Montferrat, the Milanese, and the territories of Venice, and falls into the Adriatic sea by several channels. 2. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and running south, falls into the Mediterranean a little below Nice. 3. The Adige, which rises in Tirol, runs south-east, and falls into the gulph of Venice near Chiosa. 4. The Arno,

Arno, which rises in the Appenine mountains, runs west through Tuscany, passes by Florence, and falls into the Mediterranean sea below Pisa. 5. The Tiber, which rises in the Appenine mountains, runs through Tuscany and the Pope's territories, and passing by Rome, falls into the Mediterranean sea at Ostia.

The air of Italy is generally esteemed healthy ; the northern parts which lie upon the Alps are cold, and in winter are covered with snow : the countries on the north side of the Appenine are temperate, and those of the south are very warm. Several parts about the middle, particularly the campania of Rome, are unhealthy, occasioned by bogs and stagnant waters. In other parts the air is generally pure and dry, owing perhaps to the narrowness of the country, surrounded on three sides by the sea, and continually refreshed from thence by cooling breezes.

The soil of Italy is generally very good and fertile : it is watered by a great number of rivers, affording plenty and variety of fish, and contributing many ways to enrich the territories through which they pass. The chief product of it is corn of all sorts ; grapes of various kinds, of which many sorts of excellent wines are made ; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, olives and olivettes, whose oil is not the meanest commodity of the country : in the south parts of Italy are sugar, almonds, and abundance of mulberry trees, which have rendered

dered this country famous for its silk manufactures. There are also great plenty of all other fruits in their utmost perfection, such as figs, peaches, nectarines, apricots, pine apples, chestnuts, &c ; greens, roots, herbs and flowers of all sorts, and exquisite in their kind. The gardens of Italy exceed those of all other countries in Europe, or perhaps in the world.

The low lands afford great quantity of good pasturage, on which they breed up vast numbers of cattle of all sorts, for use and food, especially of the larger kind. Their buffalos and wild boars are much admired by strangers, and the former of these reckoned much stronger and better for drawing or plowing than either oxen or horses. Their forests, which are in great abundance, are stored with all manner of game ; their hilly grounds feed great flocks of sheep and goats : even the tops of their mountains, though seemingly condemned by nature to perpetual barrenness, abound with laurel and bays, wild olive trees, tamarinds, juniper, and other ever-greens ; with oaks, pines, and a great variety of other trees and pleasant shrubs, which give them a perpetual verdure.

The modern Italians are generally very polite and affable, ingenious and witty, and give great application to business and study. If they have, in latter times, neglected the study of war, the more gentle arts, as architecture, painting, and music, have arose to a much greater height.

In

In Italy are thirty-two archbishoprics; Milan, Turin, Tarentese, Bologna, Genoa, Florence, Pisa, Urbino, Fermo, Ravenna, Naples, Capua, Salerno, Amalfi, Sorrento, Benevento, Chieti, Lanciano, Manfredina, Barri, Cirenza, Trani, Tarento, Brindisi, Otranto, Rossano, Cosenza, St. Severino, Regio, the See of Rome, the patriarchates of Venice and Aquileia. In Sicily are the archbishoprics of Palermo, Monte Real and Massina. And in Sardinia, Cagliari, Oristagni and Sassari. Besides these archbishoprics, there are no less than two hundred and seventy-three bishoprics.

There are also reckoned sixteen universities: Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Parma, Padua, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bononia, Ferrara, Pisa, Salerno, Perugia, Sienna, and Naples.

S E C T. II.

A particular Account of the most curious natural Productions of Italy, in the Animal, Vegetable and Fossil kingdoms; of remarkable Mountains, Volcanos and Caverns; of Medicinal and other singular Springs; of Cataraets, and other striking Objects of Curiosity.

A N I M A L S.

THE marmotte is an animal peculiar to the mountains of Italy, particularly the Alps, and is a species of the mouse kind. It is bigger than a rabbit, though less than a hare; the head is large and broad at the base, but narrow at the extremity; the mouth is small, the teeth are long and sharp; the ears are short, and, as it were, cut off; the eyes are large and prominent, and they are very bright and black; the body is corpulent, but the legs are very short; the tail is long and naked, and in form greatly resembles that of the common rat. The head is of a reddish brown, or tawny colour, with an admixture of something of the orange; the nose is blackish, and there are some black whiskers about it, like those of the cat; the back is of the same tawny or orange brown; and it is covered within the skin, by a kind of fatty matter, even when the rest of the body is quite bare; and this seems to have been given it by nature for a defence against that intense cold,

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The Golden Eagle.



Hist. sculp.

cold, which it is to endure, for a very great part of the year ; the teeth are yellow ; the legs are well covered with hair, and it is longer and of a paler colour on these and on the belly than on the back : the feet are formed somewhat like those of the bear, and the toes are armed with very sharp claws : the creature uses the hinder legs with great familiarity, and often walks upon them alone. It breeds only on the tops of the mountains, and sleeps almost all the winter, for which period it prepares a warm and comfortable lodging, which it lines with fur and dried vegetables, and stores with provisions. The fat of the marmotte is used by the people bordering on the Alps, for burning in their lamps, and is sometimes used in medicine ; being recommended in nervous affections, and contractions of the joints.

Among the birds that frequent the Alps, the noblest, and most worthy of observation, is the iron coloured eagle, called also the golden eagle. It is frequent in many other parts of Europe, particularly in the forests of Germany, Denmark and Sweden, and builds also in the high rocky cliffs of Great Britain and Ireland. This is a very large and beautiful, as well as a terrible bird ; it is very rapacious and bold, will seize lambs, and, in the time of its having young, scarce any thing is safe ; the size of it is that of a turkey, and the weight not less than ten or twelve pounds ; the head is large, and the beak remarkably thick and convex towards the base ; and at the point, the upper part of

it is three quarters of an inch longer than the under, and bends over the other; it is of a blackish colour, and very firm substance; its base is covered with a yellow cera, or membrane, in which the nostrils are placed in a very transverse direction; the edges of this upper part of the beak are sharp, and the tip is blacker than the rest, which is often rather bluish than black; the opening of the mouth is very wide; the tongue, in shape, is like that of the human species; the eyes are very large, and the part of the head immediately over them is prominent, so that they seem sunk in a kind of hollow; they are very bright and piercing; the iris is greenish, with a cast of fire-colour in it; the pupil is black: nature has taken surprising care to defend them from injuries: for besides the nictitating membrane, which serves other birds in the place of our eye-lids, this has four eye-lids, two above and two below, which it closes over the eyes at pleasure; and by means of which, it is able to look in the sun.

The feathers of the neck are rigid, and of a chestnut brown; the wings are very large, and extend to a surprising breadth; they are of a brown colour, as is also the tail; the whole body is of a dusky ferrugineous brown, with a few spots of white; the large feathers of the wings, though extremely long, have that part, which we call the barrel, shorter than in the goose-quill, but it is very firm and elastic, and they make the finest pens in the world for writing. The legs are robust, and are feathered
down

down to the toes, with a brown plumage; the feet are yellow, and the claws very long, sharp, and terrible, and of a bluish black; they are equal to the toes themselves in length, and are very thick at the base.

But the most surprizing animal peculiar to Italy is an insect, called the tarantula, one of the largest spiders hitherto known; its body is three quarters of an inch long, and of the thickness of one's little finger: it is usually of an olive brown, variegated with a duskier colour; but in this it varies greatly: it is covered with a short and soft down, or hairiness; the points of its foreceps are very fine and sharp: this species is a native of Otranto in the kingdom of Naples.

As to the effects of the poison they convey into the wound they make, there seems yet room for much explanation about it. We are told, that in the summer months, especially when the heats are greatest, as in the dog-days, the tarantula, creeping among the corn in the fields, bites the mowers and passengers: that in the winter it lurks in holes, and is scarcely seen; and that if it bites then it is not so venomous, neither does it induce any ill symptoms: but in hot weather, according to Dr. Mead, although the pain of its bite is at first no greater than what is caused by the sting of a bee, yet the part is quickly after discoloured with a livid, black, or yellowish circle, and raised to an inflamed swelling; the patient within a
few

few hours is seized with a violent sickness, difficulty of breathing, universal faintness, and sometimes trembling, with a weakness in the head; and on being asked his ailment, with a tremulous voice, and melancholy look, points to his breast, as if the heart was most affected: the patient grows by degrees more melancholy, stupid, and strangely timorous, and in a short time expires, unless music is called to his assistance, which alone, without the help of medicines, is said to perform the cure.

But, notwithstanding all these great authorities, there is good reason to believe the whole story fabulous, and a vulgar error; for it is treated as such by an Italian physician, in the *Philos. Transact.* and a great many gentlemen of unquestionable veracity, who resided at Taranto many months, and during the time in which the bite of a tarantula is said to be most pernicious, affirm, that there was not a physician in the country who believed there ever was such a distemper, from such a cause; that, among the vulgar, there is a tradition, that distempers attended with very extraordinary circumstances had been excited by the bite of a tarantula, but that nobody ever remembers a single instance; and that there is no other spider to be found in that country, different from those which are common in most warm countries.

The locust is another insect, which is a native of Otranto, and appears to be more pernicious to the country than the tarantula; because,

at certain seasons, this insect swarms in such prodigious multitudes as would go nigh to devour all the fruits of the earth in this province, had not providence, at the same season, sent also vast flocks of some sort of birds that devour the locusts. Of those called locusts, there are reckoned between twenty and thirty different sorts, which are all so many species of gryllus. The sorts of locusts most frequent in Europe are the Spanish locust, and the great green locust. The Spanish locust is the gryllus of a greyish brown, with black spots on the wings. It is about two inches and an half in length; the exterior wings are beautifully spotted with little dots of black; the interior ones are reticulated; the body is composed of seven or eight joints; the legs are long, and the hinder ones remarkably so, and very robust; and all of them are reddish on the hinder side, and armed with a double series of spines; the eyes are large and are striated with white; this species is found in Spain, the south of Italy, and the other warmer parts of Europe. The great green locust is the gryllus with a straight ensiform tail, and a greenish body; this species is near two inches in length, and about the thickness of a man's little finger; the breast is covered with a firm armature, of a triangular figure, which is extended down sideways towards the wings; the female has a kind of sword at the hinder extremity of the body; it is formed of two parts, or longitudinal valves. This species is not unfrequent in pastures in many parts of Europe.

V E G E T A B L E S.

OF the vegetable productions of Italy, there is none more remarkable than a sort of ash-tree, growing chiefly in Calabria, and Sicily, from which, in the heat of summer, flows a honey like juice, or gum, called manna, which is of great use in medicine, being one of the mildest and softest purgatives in nature. There are three kinds of this Calabrian manna; one called Manna di Corpo, which is the finest of all, and is spontaneously discharged from the trunk, and large branches of the tree, in form of a crystalline liquor, which is hardened into grains of different sizes, and carefully gathered the succeeding day. The second species of manna, which the Italians call Manna Forzata, or Forzatella, is obtained by making incisions in the bark of the tree in August, after the natural discharge ceases: from these incisions, the manna flows copiously, from noon till towards midnight; and is next day exposed to the sun, in order to be concreted; but this sort is less esteemed, on account of its impurity, and yellow colour. The third species, called Manna di Frondi, issues spontaneously like a kind of sweat from the nervous parts of the leaves on which the drops are concreted by the heat of the sun into small granules; but this last sort is not constantly gathered, because it cannot be separated from the leaves, without the greatest difficulty. The manna is sometimes in small granules, or drops of an irregular figure, roundish, oblong, crooked,

crooked, and sometimes contorted. It is soluble in water, but not inflammable; and should be chosen whitish, and not too heavy, in regular dry granules, or long striæ or flakes, of a pleasant taste, and dissolving wholly in the mouth, not leaving a farinaceous substance behind it.

The cork-tree is a native of Italy, and is a species of quercus, or oak. The bark of this tree, which is the cork, would split and peel off of itself, being pushed up by another bark, formed underneath; but to prevent this effort of nature, and to obtain large and even pieces of cork, it is common to make perpendicular incisions the whole length of the tree, and circular ones, towards the top and bottom of the trunk; and the bark being thus stripped off, is laid in water to render it pliable, and flatted by loading it with heavy weights, after which it is dried, and put up in bales for carriage.

Truffles are a kind of subterraneous vegetable production, which grows naturally in Italy, and larger there than in any other part of Europe. The truffle is not unlike the mushroom; it grows under the surface of the earth, and is a genus of fungi, an order of vegetables extremely different from all others.

It is only a fleshy tubercle, covered with a hard sort of crust, rough, and somewhat regularly furrowed on the surface, almost like the cypress nut. It does not rise above the surface

of the earth, but lies concealed above half a foot below it. Great numbers of them are found in the same place, of different sizes : some of them are now and then found of a pound weight, or even a pound and a quarter ; these last are but rare, and Pliny only mentions their being of a pound weight.

When the truffles are at maturity, they have a very good smell and taste ; and are fit to be dug from the month of October, to the end of December ; and sometimes to the end of February and March, when they are even at that time marbled : whereas those gathered from the month of April, till July and August, are only white. If people neglect to gather the truffles when arrived at a due degree of maturity, they rot ; and then we may observe the re-production of the truffle ; because, after some time, we see several bunches of other young truffles filling up the places of the rotten ones. These young truffles are nourished till the first colds come on ; and if the frosts are not intense, they get over the winter, and furnish us betimes with the fresh green truffles.

F O S S I L S.

IN several parts of Italy, and some of the neighbouring islands, is found the *Lapis Asbestos*, or *Amiantus*, called here earth-flax or Salamander's-wool, which is a sort of fissile stone, or mineral substance, of a whitish colour and woolly

woolly texture, consisting of small filaments, and endowed with the wonderful property of resisting fire, and remaining unconsumed in the intensest heat. The industry of mankind has found out a method of working this fibrous mineral, and employing it in divers manufactures, chiefly cloth and paper: though one would scarce imagine the thing practicable without the mixture of some other pliant matter, as wool, hemp, or flax, the threads of the Asbestos appearing too brittle for such uses. The cloth made of this incombustible matter, was in great esteem amongst the ancients, though better known and more common than in the present times. Pliny says, he himself had seen napkins of it, which being taken foul from the table, and thrown into the fire, were by that means cleansed as if they had been washed in water: but the principal use of it, according to the same author, was to make shrouds to wrap up the corps of kings and princes, that so their ashes might be preserved distinct from those of the fuel, which composed the funeral-pile; and it is said the Tartars still make use of it in burning their dead.

The pumice-stone, is frequent in Italy and Sicily, being thrown up by the eruptions of Vesuvius and Ætna. Naturalists indeed are not well agreed about the nature and origin of pumice, some taking it to be pieces of rock half-burnt and calcined, and cast into the sea by volcanos, where being washed by the salt water, it acquires a whitish or greyish colour.

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Others

Others will have it to rise from the bottom of the sea, whence they suppose it detached by subterranean fires ; and hence they account for its saline taste, its lightness, and porosity. In confirmation hereof they also alledge, that these stones are frequently found in parts of the sea, far remote from volcanos ; and add, that several parts of the Archipelago are sometimes covered with them all on a sudden, after a few inward shakes and heavings of the bottom. The pumice is of some use in medicine, but much more in the arts and manufactures.

In several of the mountains of Savoy, is dug a species of crystal, which they discover by some veins that appear on the surface, and are commonly of a whitish and bluish colour. They break the rock, and find the crystal in cavities, several feet deep, which they call ovens. It is transparent, resembling a diamond, but much inferior to it in hardness and lustre. The shoots of it are of different lengths and bigness, but all of them hexagonal, and terminating in a point, the other end adhering to a sort of irregular stone, which is stiled the matrix of the crystal. The rocks sometimes fall into the frozen vallies, where people find the crystal on the surface of the ice.

In the Alps and Appenines, they likewise dig up talc ; being a sort of shining stone, easily divisible into thin transparent scales or leaves, a little flexible. Some talc is of a silver-colour, and some yellow ; but that we have from Venice

nice is esteemed the best, which is brought to us in large greenish stones, but when wrought, becomes white and exceedingly pellucid.

There is found in the neighbourhood of Bologna, a grey, glossy, ponderous stone, about the size of a large walnut, which being properly prepared and calcined, makes a species of phosphorus. This was accidentally discovered by one Casciarlo, a chymist, who, having gathered some of these stones, and carried them home, in hopes of extracting silver out of them by fire, found that after a certain process, being exposed to the light, they retained it in such a manner, as to shine in the dark for a considerable time. Some affirm, that the true art of preparing and calcining this stone is lost; and we are told of a person who had a method of making statues and pictures of it, that would appear luminous in the dark, but that he died without discovering the secret.

With regard to extraneous fossils, there is in the cabinet of curiosities at Leghorn, a piece of the jaw-bone of an elephant, petrified into an agate; and in the neighbourhood of Todi, in the duchy of Spoleto, is found a sort of fossil wood, which is veined somewhat in the manner of marbled paper, but it is in all other respects like common wood: it is dug up in blocks of different dimensions, without any appearance of root or branches, and is manufactured by the people of the country into different sorts of utensils.

M O U N T A I N S.

THE Alps, which separate Italy from France and Germany, are the highest mountains in Europe; they extend, from near the coast of the Mediterranean, between the territory of Genoa and the county of Nice, to the gulph of Carnero, which is part of the gulph of Venice. These mountains give rise to the Rhine, the Rhone, and many other considerable rivers, some of which, before they enter into the plains, fall down steep rocks, with incredible violence and noise. The river Arva in Savoy, is remarkable on this account; and the roads near it, which are cut along the sides of vast precipices, and in several places very narrow, afford a scene that few travellers can behold without some degree of terror. But though the prospect of this stupendous pile of rugged mountains, inaccessible rocks, and wide chasms, by which they are intersected, seems to carry the face of ruin and confusion, yet there is something in the whole that is august and state-ly, that fills the mind with noble thoughts, and naturally leads us to reflect on the power, wisdom, and majesty of the great Creator.

M. de la Condamine observes, that the melting of the snows in summer, being suspended every night in the gorges of the Alps, and renewed again every day, during the hours in which the sun is hottest, gives occasion to
very

very fantastical appearances. A valley, in whose depth the eye is lost, covered with rough pieces of ice, resembling waves, and the whole surface of this sea again congealed, and intersected here and there with deep crevices ; the noise of a subterranean torrent, which supports this enormous mass, and changes the appearance as well as level of it from day to day ; all these effects, wrought by changes that are almost sudden, and variously combined of heat cold, can scarce be seen any where in so eminent a degree ; they form together a very singular spectacle, worthy the observations of Naturalists ; and calculated to furnish new observations.

Scheuchzer, in his *Iter Alpinum*, gives a description of the Ice vallies of Switzerland, which is the name bestowed on those immense masses of ice : but it appears, that the ice vallies of Savoy are very different from them. The most celebrated and most curious of these last, is at three days journey from Geneva, at the foot of the White Mountain, the highest among the Alps. This is called the valley of Chamogny, from a little village of the same name, on the north side of the Ava, on the south side of which is the Ice valley. Though these are called vallies, as being vast cavities or hollows, their situation is perhaps two or three thousand feet perpendicular above the level of the plains below ; and yet having points of rocks or mountains shooting up to a prodigious height above them. The ascent is generally

very steep, rugged and slippery, and the air so extremely cold, that persons who visit them in July and August, the only months in the year that are fit for the journey, go cloathed as in the depth of winter.

The valley of Chamogny, which stretches itself eighteen miles in length, is divided, at about half that distance from the village, into two different horns, or branches. The surface of this valley is very uneven, appearing like a sea or lake that has been agitated by violent winds and frozen all at once, whilst the waves were rolling and dashing one against another; and in several places there are great cracks in the ice, some narrow enough to step over, but others some yards wide, in which people are often lost who go in search of crystal, for it is very dangerous going over them, especially when covered with snow. These cracks are made by the heat of the sun at noon, and with such a terrible noise, occasioned by the echo from the rocks all round it, that it resembles the firing of great guns, or loud claps of thunder. The breadth of this valley is about two miles, and the thickness of the ice in summer is found to be six or eight feet, but some of the frozen waves, if we may so call them, are forty or fifty feet higher than the cavities between them. According to Mr. Martel, who visited this valley in 1742, it has a communication with another valley by five openings, at one of which the river Arbairon has its source, issuing from under two arches of ice, composed of

of a vast number of vertical shoots unequally terminated, which look like the finest crystal in the world, and reflect an infinity of the brightest colours. The Arbairon is a large stream that falls into the Arva, and carries along with it a great many particles of gold; and the rivulet of Argentiére, which comes from a valley of ice of the same name, carries with it also pieces of gold and silver.

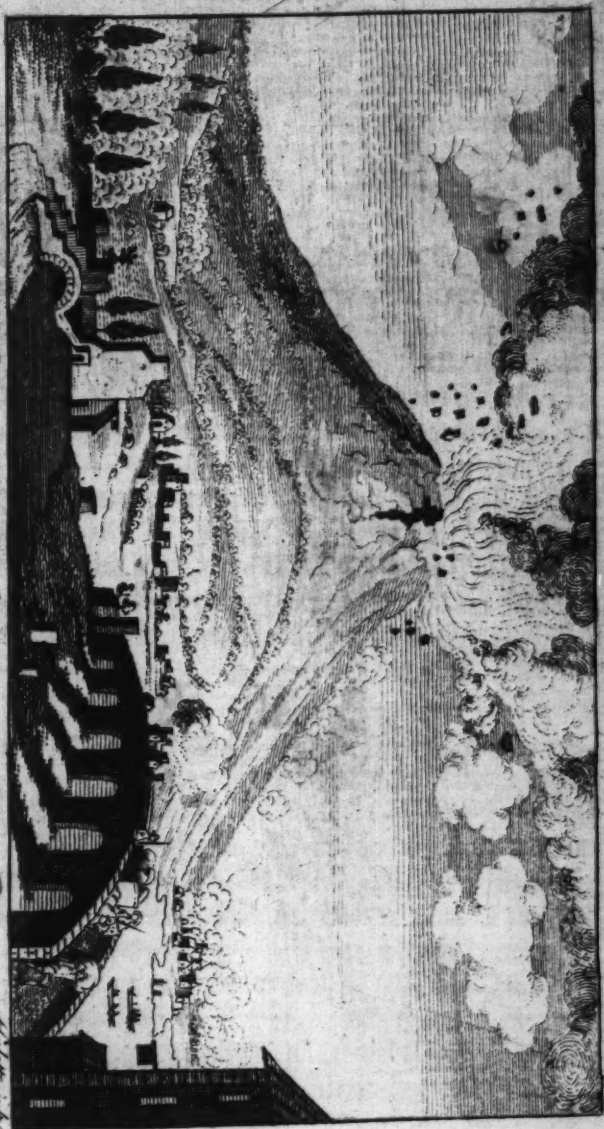
The snow-balls, which sometimes gather, and roll down the sides of these mountains, are very surprizing and dangerous to travellers. They are occasioned by the dropping of a quantity of snow from some prominent rock, which increases as it falls down the steep declivities, till it becomes of a prodigious size, and sweeps away houses, trees, men, horses, or whatever it meets with in its passage. As they fall suddenly, and with great rapidity, it is very difficult for passengers to avoid them; and nothing is able to resist their force till they get to the bottom, where they generally break in pieces by the violence of the shock. Some of these mountain snow-balls have been found, by measuring their track, to be above an hundred yards in diameter; and one of them, in the year 1695, fell upon a village in the night-time, and destroyed eleven houses, besides barns and stables, burying men, women, and cattle in the ruins. These terrible accidents, we are told, are produced even by the leaping of a Chamois, the firing of a pistol, a shout, the bells of mules and pack-horses, or any noise

that shakes the air, whereby the snow is loosened from the rocks above: for which reason, in places of the greatest danger, people take care to travel early, and with all the silence possible. Some of these snow-balls indeed are not so destructive, which consist of new-fallen snow driven by the wind; for these being lighter, persons buried under them may live a long time without being suffocated, and are often timely relieved by men kept in pay to clear the roads, and give assistance to passengers on such occasions.

The Appenines are another chain of lofty mountains, which run through the whole length of Italy, from the north-west to the south-east; and from which proceed the several rivers and brooks that water and fertilize this country.

Besides the Alps and Appenines, Italy is celebrated for two Volcanos, mount Vesuvius near Naples, and mount *Ætna*, near Catania, in Sicily.

Mount Vesuvius, which is one of the most famous and dreadful Volcanos in the world, is about seven or eight miles to the eastward of Naples; and the terrible eruptions of fire, stones, and melted matter, that have proceeded from its summit, have often threatened the destruction of that city, and all the neighbouring country. About half the way from Naples to mount Vesuvius is pleasant enough, running through several pretty villages, along the coast;
after



Mount Vesuvius thro' Jaegers from Naples.

et alii vidi.

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after which the traveller meets with dismal marks of this volcano's fury. The ascent to the top of the mountain is tedious and difficult; because every step the traveller takes, he sinks into a kind of burnt earth, loose and crumbled, as if it had been sifted and mixed with calcined stones and cinders. After travelling two miles in this troublesome manner, he arrives at a naked plain, from several parts of which issues a sulphureous smoke; and in the middle of it rises another hill, shaped like a sugar loaf, of more difficult access than the former. At the summit of the hill is a vast mouth, or cavity, about four hundred yards in diameter at the top, but shelving down on all sides like a funnel, from whence proceeds a continual smoke, and sometimes those astonishing eruptions of flame, ashes, and burning matter, which fill the neighbouring inhabitants with consternation: but this volcano has, within these few years, opened to itself a new crater or mouth.

In the year 1755, M. de la Condamine proceeded to the brink of the funnel, which had formed itself round the mouth of the volcano since its last explosion. This funnel was opened amidst a heap of cinders, calcined stones, and sulphur, which still burned here and there, tinging the very sun with its colour, and exhaling through divers crevices. This gentleman, going close to the edge of the crater, in order to examine the inside of this gulph, was prevented from seeing the bottom by the smoke.

At such times, however, as the wind dispersed it, he could see down to the depth of forty fathoms, or more; and could perceive therein a large arched cavity, towards the north-east part of the mountain. Having caused several great stones to be thrown into this cavity, he could hear the noise of their rolling for twelve seconds, and when nothing was thrown in he could hear a kind of boiling, like the sound of agitated waves.

The eruptions of this volcano have been frequent for many years past; and every time that it darts forth its flames, and vomits out its liquid matter, the exterior form of the mountain, as well as its height, receive considerable alterations. In a small plain, resembling a half moon, situated between the mountain of cinders and a semicircular theatre of steep rocks, two hundred feet high, M. de la Condamine viewed closely the breathing holes, lately opened in the sides of the mountain, through which, at the time of its last eruption, those torrents of inflamed matter had escaped, to which they give the name of lava, and with which all this valley is filled.

This singular spectacle presents us with the appearance of metallic waves grown cold, and in a state of congelation. One may form a slight but very imperfect notion of it, by supposing to ourselves a sea of thick and tenacious matter, the waves of which were beginning to subside. This sea had its isles, which are solitary masses, resembling hollow spongy rocks,

rocks, opening into arcades and grottos, fantastically formed, beneath which the burning liquid matter has opened itself magazines or reservoirs not unlike furnaces. These grottos, with their vaults and pillars, all the pure work of nature, were loaded with Scoria, suspended around them, in the form of Stalactites, or irregular clusters of grapes of all sorts of colours and shades.

They do not comprehend under the name of lava, all the various sorts of matter which issue out of the mouth of the volcano, such as cinders, pumice stones, sand, gravel, &c. but only those which, being reduced by the action of the fire to a state of liquidity, form, on cooling, solid masses, in hardness surpassing even that of marble. Tables, chimney-pieces, and even snuff-boxes are made of it. It is diffused in large masses on the sides of mount Vesuvius, and in the adjacent fields. There it has run in torrents, and formed, on cooling, masses like rocks. Frequently in the interval between one eruption and another, a new bed of earth is formed over the lava, extremely fertile, which another stratum of lava covers again in its turn. It is beneath several of these beds of lava, cinders, and earth, all which, put together, form a crust between sixty and eighty feet thick, that they have found temples, porticos, statues, a theatre, and an entire city; and it is well known that Naples is paved with this lava; the pavement of Rome is also composed of the same materials, and the greater part of the ancient Roman highways. Though

Though we meet with dismal accounts in ancient history of the devastations occasioned by the eruptions of this volcano, there are irresistible testimonies of vast conflagrations, anterior to all historical monuments. The first eruption of mount Vesuvius, which we find mentioned in history, was towards the end of the year 79 of the Christian æra, and the first year of the reign of the emperor Titus, when Campania was alarmed with a most dreadful, if not an incredible eruption of that volcano, which had laid waste the whole country to a great distance, and utterly consumed a great many cities, with their inhabitants; and among the rest, Pompeii and Herculaneum. Pompeii had suffered much by an earthquake about three years before, and had been rebuilt, and embellished with several stately edifices, especially a theatre, in which the people were assembled, and intent upon the public shews, when the city was swallowed up by an earthquake, which attended the eruption of the flames from the mountain. The ruins of Herculaneum were discovered only a few years ago, being buried sixty feet deep under the ashes, cinders, and other matter vomited out upon it by the mount; and the surface of this matter, wherein it was overwhelmed for such a long succession of time, became arable and cultivated ground. The cities of Puteoli and Cumæ were greatly damaged by the same earthquake, and by the burning ashes, which if the historians of that time are to be credited, reached Africa, Egypt, and Syria, and at Rome turned suddenly, to the great
terror

terror of the inhabitants, day into night, Pliny the elder, who was then at Misenum, where he commanded a Roman fleet riding there, having discovered this cloud on the first of November, and not yet knowing whence it issued, went directly on board one of the galleys, and sailed towards mount Vesuvius. He was soon met by great numbers of persons, who, in small boats, were flying from the dreadful conflagration. But nevertheless, prompted by his curiosity, he pursued his course, though stones, ashes, and earth, began already to shower down upon his vessel: nay, we are told, that to his great surprise, he found a new cape formed by the earth, and huge stones thrown out by the mountain. However he proceeded with great intrepidity, and reaching Stabiae, between Pompeii and Surrentum, though the inhabitants had all abandoned the place, passed the night there, the better to observe, during the darkness, the mountain, which seemed all on a blaze. The same night a dreadful earthquake happened at Stabiae, and such a huge quantity of stones fell, that Pliny resolved to put to sea, but was prevented by contrary winds. At length the fire approaching, he attempted to save himself by flight, but though supported by two of his domestics, he soon fell suffocated, as is supposed, by the thickness of the air, and the insupportable stench of the sulphur; his body was found three days after, and interred by his nephew, Pliny the younger, who was then at Misenum, and narrowly es-

caped the same fate, as he himself relates in his epistles.

But to come nearer our own times, there was an eruption of mount Vesuvius in 1632; so very violent, that it threw rocks three miles into the air, which eruption was attended with a terrible earthquake.

In 1694, there was a violent eruption of this volcano, which continued great part of the month of April, and threw up ashes and stones with such violence, that some of the stones reached Benevento, near thirty miles distant. A prodigious quantity of lava, or melted minerals, was likewise thrown out at the mouth of the mountain, and ran down by its sides, insomuch that great numbers of men were employed to cut trenches and channels to receive it, and prevent its spreading over the plains below. At this time, when the wind was in the east, the houses and streets of Naples were covered with ashes.

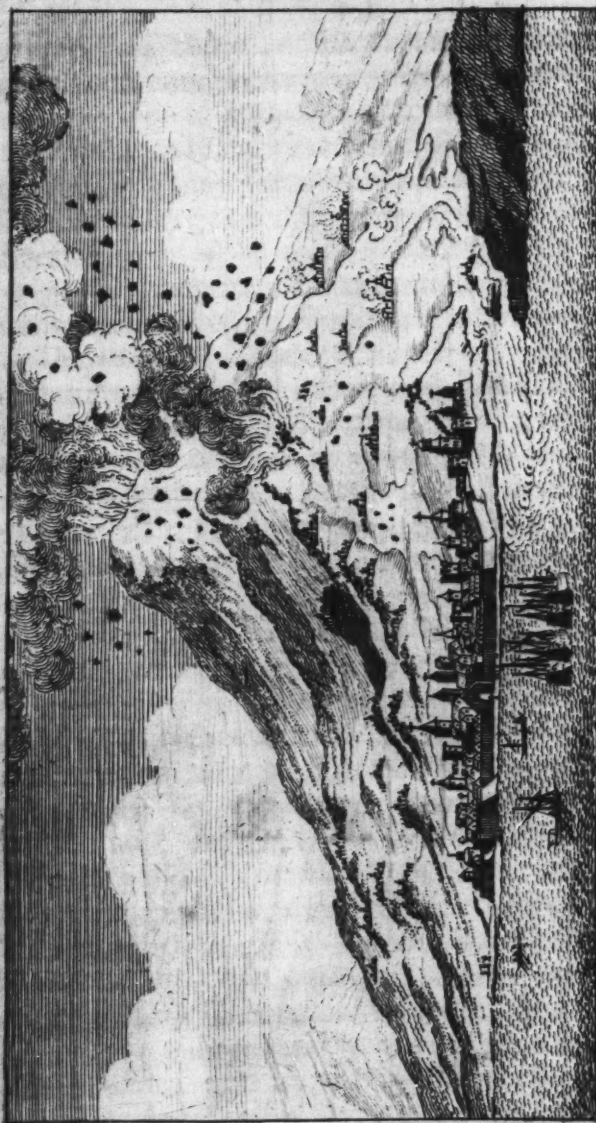
The latter end of July, in the year 1707, there happened another terrible eruption, attended with such a rumbling and bellowing of the mountain, as far exceeded the report of the largest artillery. Having thrown up clouds of ashes into the air for several days and nights, and a shower of stones that killed both men and cattle, it began to belch out a liquid torrent of bitumen, which resembled a gentle stream of fire, and cooling in its progress, became

came as hard as flint at the bottom, but more porous and spongy on the surface. After this, frequent flashes of fire, like lightning, proceeded from its mouth, followed by loud claps of thunder; and on the second of August, at four in the afternoon, there was such a thick cloud of ashes hovering over Naples, that the darkness was equal to that at midnight. The next day, by the shifting of the wind, the ashes were driven another way; and the mountain having raged after this manner about fifteen days, the eruption entirely ceased.

To these accounts of Vesuvius, we shall only add a few particulars relating to the great eruption in 1717, as they are given us by Mr. Edward Berkeley, who was then at Naples. On the 5th of June, he tells us, the mountain was observed to spue a little out of the crater, as he calls its mouth; and the same continued the day following. The 7th in the evening it began a hideous bellowing, which continued till noon the next day, causing the windows, and even the houses in Naples to shake. From that time it would vomit vast quantities of melted matter to the south, which streamed down the side of the mountain, like a pot boiling over. On the 10th it roared and groaned most dreadfully, of which one cannot form a juster idea than by imagining a mixed sound made up of the raging of a tempest, the murmur of a troubled sea, and the roaring of thunder and artillery confused altogether. This induced our

author, with three or four more in company, to visit the mountain; and they arrived at the burning river about midnight, when the roaring of the volcano was exceeding loud and horrible. There was a mixture of colours in the cloud over the crater, a ruddy dismal light in the air over the fiery torrent, and ashes were continually showering upon their heads; all which circumstances, augmented by the horror and silence of the night, made a most uncommon and astonishing scene. Imagine, says he, a vast torrent of liquid fire rolling along the side of a mountain, and with incredible fury bearing down and consuming vines, olives, fig-trees, houses, and every thing that stood in its way. The largest stream seemed half a mile broad at least, and five miles long; and Mr. Berkeley walked so far up the mountain by the side of this burning river, that he was obliged to retire in haste, the sulphureous steam having surprised him, and almost taken away his breath. They returned about three in the morning, hearing constantly the murmur and groaning of the mountain, which now and then burst into louder peals throwing up huge spouts of fire and burning stones, which in their fall resembled the stars in our rockets. Sometimes there appeared two or three distinct columns of flame, and sometimes only a single one that seemed to fill the whole crater. It was judged that the flames and fiery stones were shot more than a thousand feet perpendicular above the summit of the volcano, which continued raging in this manner,

2 AU 58



Mount Etna in Sicily, being a true Draught of the Eruption in 1669.

ner, more or less, till the 18th, when the whole appearance ended, and the mountain remained perfectly quiet.

Mount *Ætna*, called also mount *Gibel*, the highest mountain in Sicily, is situated in the *Val di Demona*, ten miles west of *Catania*. This is the principal volcano in Europe, and has been famous in all histories for its fiery eruptions. The first eruption of mount *Ætna* we have any account of, happened 500 years before the destruction of *Troy*, according to *Diodorus Siculus*. The greatest eruptions of late happened in the years of the Christian æra, 1536, 1554, and 1579; and those eruptions have always been taken for the most probable causes of the horrible shocks that from time to time, have laid waste the island of Sicily.

Upon the 11th of March 1669, a furious eruption of mount *Ætna* broke out two hours before night, at the side of the mountain, about twenty miles from the old mouth, the noise of which was heard a hundred miles off, to which distance the ashes were likewise carried. The matter thrown out was a stream of metal and minerals, rendered liquid by the fierceness of the fire, which boiled up at the mouth like water at the head of a great river; and having run a little way, the extremity thereof began to crust and curdle, turning into hard porous stones resembling large cakes of burning sea-coal. These came rolling and tumbling one

over another, bearing down any common building by their weight, and burning whatever was combustible. At first the progress of this inundation was at the rate of three miles in twenty-four hours, but afterwards it scarce advanced a furlong in a day; and thus it continued for fifteen or twenty days together, running into the sea close by the walls of Catania. At length it made its way over the walls into the city, where however it did no considerable damage, except to a convent of Benedictines. In its course it overwhelmed fourteen towns and villages, containing three or four thousand inhabitants; and it is remarkable, that during the whole time of this eruption, which was fifty-four days, neither sun nor stars appeared.

But though Catania had this time the good fortune to escape the threatened destruction, it was almost totally ruined in 1692-3 by an earthquake, one of the most terrible in all history. It was not only felt all over Sicily, but likewise in Naples and Malta; and the shock was so violent that people could not stand upon their legs, and those who lay upon the ground were tossed from side to side, as if upon a rolling billow. The earth opened in several places, throwing up large quantities of water; and great numbers perished in their houses by the fall of rocks that were loosened and rent from the mountains. The sea was violently agitated, and roared dreadfully, mount *Ætna* threw up vast spires of flame, and the shock was attended with

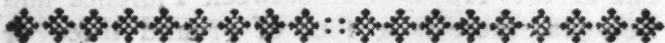
with a noise exceeding the loudest claps of thunder. Fifty-four cities and towns, with an incredible number of villages, were either destroyed or greatly damaged; and it was computed that near sixty thousand people perished in different parts of the island, of whom eighteen thousand were inhabitants of Catania, very few escaping the general and sudden destruction of that city.

We are informed by Dr. St. Clair, in the Philosophical Transactions, that on the side of one of the Appenines, between Florence and Bologna, there is a spot of ground three or four miles in diameter, from whence issues a constant flame, which rises very high, and gives a great heat, but without noise, smoke, or smell. In lasting and heavy rains it sometimes intermits, but rekindles with greater heat and vigour. The Doctor adds, that corn grows within a few yards of it; and he conjectures the flame arises from a vein of bitumen or naphtha. There are other fires of this kind upon the same mountains.

The Solfatara, near Puzzuoli, in the kingdom of Naples, is a remarkable hill, on which there is a cavity of an oval form, from several parts whereof issues a thick smoke, or steam, and sometimes flame. The surface of the ground is always very warm, and in summer-time is covered with a saltish flour, or dust, which they sweep together, and put into coppers filled with water, and placed over certain

tain subterraneous spiracles, the heat whereof, without any other fire, evaporates the water, and leaves an allum behind.

In 1538, during the time of an eruption of mount Vefuvius, a small mountain, about a hundred fathoms high, called *Montenuovo*, or the new mountain, started up in one night, near Puzzuoli. M. de la Condamine is of opinion that some curious researches might be made in the bowels of this mountain.



C A V E R N S.

ITALY abounds with several curious caverns, or grottos, the most remarkable of which is a cavern about two miles from Naples, called *Grotto del Cani*, the *Grotto of the Dogs*, from the frequent experiments made upon dogs in it. Here is a thick suffocating vapour which rises from six to seven inches above the surface of the ground; the sides of the grotto, as far as the vapour reaches, are of a greenish colour, and above this mark, the air is not in the least offensive or injurious. A dog thrown into the grotto, becomes immediately convulsed, and in less than a minute loses all signs of life: but on his being carried into the open air, or thrown into a neighbouring lake, if he is not quite dead, soon recovers. A burning torch
dipped

dipped into the vapour goes out in a moment, snuff and all; and a pistol will not fire in it. The Abbe Nollet made several experiments upon the vapour of this grotto lately, as did also M. de la Condamine, who laid his face close to the earth, and drew in the vapour several times, the effect of which was only a little smarting over the eyes, with something strong in the throat, which, though it cannot be called acrid, produced nearly the same sensation as when a weak volatile salt is snuffed up, but without any smell; that is, there was nothing very distinct as to the odour or taste, but something very penetrating and suffocating.

Near the village of Saffa, about eight miles from Bracciano, in the patrimony of St. Peter, is another little cavern, called *Grotto del Serpi*, or the *Grotto of Serpents*, which is only big enough to hold two persons, and is perforated with a great many fistular apertures, almost like a sieve, out of which, at the beginning of the spring, issues a vast number of young snakes, of different colours, but not endowed with any particular poisonous quality. In this cavern, persons afflicted with a leprosy, elephantiasis, palsy, or gout, are said to be exposed naked, when a sweat will be raised by the warmth of a subterranean steam, which issues out through these apertures, and the serpents will cling round the patients, licking and sucking the parts affected; and by repeating this practice for some time, the disorder
temper,

temper, it is said, will be entirely removed. Kircher, who visited this grotto, affirms, that he found it warm, and heard a hissing noise in the holes; and though he did not see the serpents, not having been there at the season of their creeping out, yet he saw several of their exuviae, or sloughs, in the grotto, and saw moreover several of them hanging upon an elm-tree, near the mouth of the cavern.

It is said, that the extraordinary qualities of this cave were discovered by a leper, who was upon his journey to some baths near Rome, to receive the benefit of the waters: but, losing his way, and being benighted, he happened to creep into the cavern to lodge there. Finding it warm, he pulled off his cloaths, and being weary and sleepy, had the good fortune not to perceive the serpents about him, till they had wrought his cure.

The grotto of Pausilypo is a subterraneous passage, cut through a hill of the same name, between Puzzuoli and Naples. It is four hundred and forty paces long, twenty feet broad, and forty feet high, at each entrance: but it grows lower by degrees, for the better admission of the light. This road was antiently very dark and dusty, which inconveniencies have been, in some measure, remedied by making openings at the top, and paving the bottom of it; but it is still a troublesome and tedious passage. The stone dug out of this hill is good for building; whence it is conjectured,

tured, that this cave was not originally cut for a road, but was a quarry of stone.

Near the city of Vicenza, in the territory of Vicentino, is a grotto, called Il Cubalo, cut into the solid rock, and computed to be an hundred paces in length; but withal so intricate, that if any person ventures into it without lights, he is sure to be lost in it: the place is so excessive cold, that it is intolerable even in the warmest day in summer: here are some springs and currents, which petrify every thing that is thrown into them, and yet abound with some sort of fish.

Near the city of Enna, in the territory of Val di Noto, in Sicily, is a cavern, which is supposed to be bottomless, and which the ancients imagined reached down to hell; whence they fancied that, through this cavern, Pluto came out in his car, and carried off Proserpine, from the neighbouring fields, which they add, were afterwards turned into a lake, now called Pergus.

In the isle of Ischia, near Sardinia, are several caverns, called Cremate, out of which there were such eruptions of fire, and such torrents of sulphur were vomited up, in the year 1301, as ruined the whole country, for three miles round. This island has been always subject to dreadful earthquakes, inso-much that the poets feigned it to be the place where

where Jupiter overwhelmed the Tytan Typhon,
with his thunder-bolts.



MEDICINAL SPRINGS, and other SINGULAR SPRINGS, LAKES, and CATARACTS.

THE medicinal springs of Italy, and the neighbouring islands, are too numerous to be taken notice of in a *Compendium* of this kind. The kingdom of Naples, in particular, abounds with hot baths, impregnated with sulphur and other minerals, which are frequented for many distempers, especially arthritic, rheumatic, and venereal cafes.

On the side of a hill, about a mile from Viterbo, there are several hot springs, the waters of which have a sulphureous and brackish taste. These springs are surrounded with a low wall, and send out four streams, or rivulets, into proper baths or receptacles, where the heat of the water is much abated. These waters are chiefly used for bathing; the internal use of them not being thought very safe, on account of the vast quantity of calcarious matter contained in them.

Aix, in the duchy of Savoy, is celebrated for its hot medicinal springs; and near the
city

city of Volterra, in the territory of Pisano, are some remarkable hot springs, from which issue such strong sulphureous fumes, that the birds in their flight over them, are suffocated, and drop down dead : the ebullition in these springs is so great, that the water bubbles up eight or nine feet, with a considerable noise.

The waters of Cumæ, in the kingdom of Naples, were much commended by the ancients for their salutary virtues ; and near Tiano, in Terra di Lavoro, in the same kingdom, are some medicinal waters greatly esteemed as an efficacious remedy against the stone.

M. de la Condamine assures us, that, in the gulph of Specia, he saw a spring of fresh water in the middle of the sea ; and in the island of Zant, belonging to the Venetians, there is a spring of fresh and clear water, which throws up pieces of pitch, several of them as big as a man's thumb, and some much larger : and when the water of this spring has stood to be thoroughly settled, a considerable quantity of pitch, in proportion to the quantity of water, is found at the bottom. It is said, that the people in the neighbourhood of this spring, procure annually, upwards of an hundred barrels of pitch from it, with which they pitch their ships and other vessels.

In the duchy of Modena, there are several springs or wells, from the surface of which is gathered a subtle, inflammable mineral oil, of a fragrant bituminous smell, and of different colours, called Petroleum, oil of Peter, or rock-oil, because it frequently issues from the clefts of rocks; and the springs on which it floats are generally found on craggy mountains. Near a place in this duchy, called Frumetto, the inhabitants dig wells to come at these oily springs, and find in those at the bottom of a hill a large quantity of red oil, but those near the top yield a white oil as clear as water. There is another hill near the Appenines in the same country, from whence rises a perpetual spring of water, on which this oil swims, and in such quantities, that twice a week they gather six pounds at a time.

Petroleum is an extremely subtle and penetrating fluid, and is by much the thinnest of all the native bitumens. It is very light and very pellucid; but though equally bright and clear under all circumstances, it is liable to a very great variety in its colour. It is naturally almost colourless, and in its appearance greatly resembles the most pure oil of turpentine: this is called white petroleum, though it has no more colour than water; it is sometimes tinged of a brownish, reddish, yellowish, or faint-greenish colour; but its most frequent colour is a mixture of the reddish and blackish, in such a degree, that it looks black when viewed

viewed behind the light, but purple when placed between the eye and a candle or window. It is of a pungent and acrid taste, and of a very strong and penetrating smell, which very much approaches to that of the distilled oil of amber. The white is most esteemed. It is so very inflammable, that while it floats on the surface of the water, as it does in many parts of Italy, it takes fire at the approach of a candle. Petroleum is found in rivers, in wells, and trickling down the sides of hills, along with little streams of water. In short, it is the most frequent of all the liquid bitumens, and is, perhaps, the most valuable of them all in medicine. It is to be chosen the purest, lightest, and most pellucid, that can be had, such as is of the most penetrating smell, and is most inflammable. It is principally used externally in paralytic cases, and in pains of the limbs. The French give it internally in hysteric complaints, and to their children against worms; some also give it from ten to fifteen drops in wine, for suppression of the menses. These, however, are rather the practices of the common people than of the faculty.

The little lake near Tivoli, and the rivulet called Salforata, that issues from it, are remarkable for their offensive sulphureous stench, which infects the air to a considerable distance. In the lake are several floating islands, fifteen or twenty yards long, supposed to be formed originally of sulphureous earth rising from the
P 2 bottom ;

bottom ; and the banks seem to have encroached upon the lake by an incrustation of the same matter, which in time may probably cover its whole surface.

About three miles from Terni, in the duchy of Spoleto, is a famous cataract, called the Cataract of Terni, formed by the fall of the river Velino, mentioned by Virgil. The channel of the river lies very high, and is on all sides shaded by a green forest, consisting of several kinds of trees, that preserve their verdure all the year, and with these the neighbouring mountains were covered. The river runs extremely rapid before it falls, and then rushes down a precipice three hundred feet high, throwing itself into the hollow rock, which has been probably worn with such a constant fall of water. It is impossible to see the bottom, on which it breaks, on account of the thickness of the mist that rises from it. which, at a distance, looks like clouds of smoke ascending from a vast furnace, and distils in perpetual rains upon all the places that lie near it.

The river Teverone, near Tivoli, in the pope's territories, runs down a precipice upwards of a hundred feet high ; and near the town of Sora, in the territory of di Lavoro, in the kingdom of Naples, the river Garigliano precipitates itself by two cascades, the one perpendicular, about sixty feet high, and forty broad, the other much less rapid, but the sight
of

of which is not less singular, nor less agreeable to the eye.



S E C T. III.

An Historical Account of the most remarkable Earthquakes, Fires, and other public Calamities, which at different Times, have visited the Inhabitants of Italy, and the Italian Islands.

ITALY has suffered more by earthquakes, than by any other general calamity: and indeed there are few countries in which greater and more frequent devastations have been made by those most formidable and astonishing concussions; particularly the two Sicilies, where whole cities have often been overwhelmed, and buried by the eruptions of the two volcanos of *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*, and others totally overturned, or otherwise destroyed, by earthquakes, which have accompanied such eruptions.

But different parts of Italy have frequently suffered by earthquakes, which do not appear to have been the attendants of the eruptions of *Ætna* or *Vesuvius*, particularly the city of *Budoa*, in *Dalmatia*, and several places in the

neighbourhood, were greatly damaged by an earthquake, which happened in 1667.

The city of Ferrara, in the duchy of the same name, about the beginning of the last century, was almost reduced to a heap of rubbish, by a violent earthquake, which lasted forty hours, in which time this city received one hundred and sixty shocks.

Upon the 2d of February, 1703, the city of Aquila, in the kingdom of Naples, was almost totally destroyed by an earthquake, and near four thousand of the inhabitants perished by it. The greatest part of the city of Benevento, in the farther Principat, was destroyed by the same earthquake; and this city has suffered so much by earthquakes, that scarce any thing but ruins are to be seen in it.

In short, many are the earthquakes which have, at various times, overturned several of the cities of Italy and Sicily: the city of St. Euphemia was swallowed up by an earthquake in 1638; the gulphs of Palermo were opened by an earthquake in 1718, and the city of Syracuse was overturned by one, within these very few years.

No place in Italy appears to have suffered more from fire than the city of Annecy, in Savoy, which was formerly large, populous, and opulent, but in 1448, was almost burnt down

down to the ground. But enough of such lamentable subjects.

Swellings of the throat have been always so common to the inhabitants of the mountainous parts of Italy, that the old Roman authors say, "Who wonders at a swelled throat in the Alps?" And it is observed of the mountainers of Savoy, that they are subject to a sort of wens, or excrescences of flesh, which grow about their throats, and are supposed to be induced by the use of snow water. Some of these excrescences are of a large and enormous size, and very much disfigure such as have them, particularly the women, and yet there appears to be no other inconvenience attending them, as they are neither painful or dangerous.



S E C T. IV.

An Account of the most celebrated Inventions, Discoveries, &c. of the Inhabitants of Italy, and the Italian Islands.

IF the military art has been less cultivated by the modern Italians, than it was by the ancient inhabitants of these countries, it may be affirmed, that they have made greater improvements

ments in the more soft and gentle arts, such as architecture, painting, music, and some others, than perhaps any modern nation in Europe; nor have they neglected the more noble sciences, but made very considerable improvements and discoveries in mathematical and philosophical knowledge, as well as in several of the liberal arts.

But arms, or the art of war, were not the only one improved by the ancient inhabitants of Italy, and the Italian islands. The illustrious Archimedes, who was a native of Syracuse, in Sicily, stands foremost among all the geometricians of antiquity, for the improvement of mechanics, in which he had such a surprising invention, that he declared to Hiero, king of Syracuse, whose relation he was, that if he had another earth whereon to plant his machines, he could move this which we inhabit: he is said to have formed a glass sphere, of a most surprising workmanship, wherein the motions of the heavenly bodies were represented. Claudius has an epigram upon this invention. He discovered the method of finding the various comparative, or specific gravities of fluid and solid bodies: but he became most famous for his curious contrivances, by which the city of Syracuse was so long defended, when besieged by Marcellus. Plutarch tells us, that he discharged on the Roman fleet, from one of his engines, stones which weighed twelve hundred and fifty pounds each. At the same time, several other machines,

chines, which were not visible without the walls, played incessantly on the Roman ships; and overwhelmed them with showers of stones, rafters, and beams, pointed with iron; so that the Roman consul, being at a loss what to do, retired, with all possible haste, and sent orders for his land forces to do the same: for the attack on the land side was attended with no better success; the ranks being broken, and thrown into the utmost confusion, by the stones and darts which flew from the machines, with such noise, force, and rapidity, that they struck the Romans with terror, and dashed all to pieces before them; and the Roman soldiers were so terrified, that if they saw upon the walls only a small cord, or the least piece of wood, they turned their backs and fled, crying, that Archimedes was going to discharge some dreadful machine upon them. From hence, and a great many other circumstances, mentioned by historians, relating to those machines, it must be allowed that they excelled every thing invented by the moderns, notwithstanding the progress the mechanic arts have lately made in Europe; and it is to be lamented, that none of the ancient historians have given us descriptions of those machines, and the manner in which their operations were performed; as doubtless a knowledge of their construction would have been of infinite service to the moderns, and enabled them to have carried this art to a much greater degree of perfection. Archimedes is said to have been killed in the 143d Olympiad,

Olympiad, and 546th year of Rome, about 208 years before the birth of Christ. We have several of his works still extant, but the greatest part of them are lost.

Among the antient Romans, Virgil, Horace, Juvenal, Lucretius, Ovid, and others, carried poetry to a great degree of perfection, and equalled the Greeks. Cicero brought oratory to the greatest height at Rome, and equalled, if not excelled, Demosthenes himself. Vitruvius imitated the Greek architects, and introduced among the Romans a true taste in building. Celsus, who flourished in the reign of Augustus and Tiberius, was greatly esteemed as a physician, and natural historian; and Pliny enriched the world with a body of natural history, and the only one which the antients have left us. It must be owned, that Pliny received too easily the informations of others, and that his works would have been of infinitely more service to the public, had he made criticism and experiments keep pace with his researches. His works are however, with all their faults, of the greatest use, and, were his mistakes properly pointed out, might be used with the greatest advantage to convey into the minds of youth the richest stock of all the terms of the Latin tongue, together with such branches of learning as are most proper to adorn their minds, and afford them employment for the remainder of their lives.

Among

Among the modern Italians was the great Columbus, who discovered America. He was a native of Genoa, and was born in 1442. This most celebrated adventurer, having applied himself to the study of geometry, astronomy, and cosmography, went to sea; and having gained much experience from long voyages into different parts of the world, was persuaded that there must be large and habitable countries in the western ocean. He therefore laid a plan for the discovery of this supposed new world before the king of Portugal; but the king giving him no great encouragement, he made application to some other European princes and states, particularly to king Henry the Seventh of England to furnish him some ships and money to proceed on his intended voyage. After many solicitations, he at length obtained the necessary assistance from Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain, who provided him with money to fit out three small ships for the expedition. This little squadron, manned only with ninety men, set sail from Palos in Andalusia, on the third of August 1492, arrived at the Canaries on the twelfth of the same month, and left those islands the first of September, directing their course to the westward. But they had not sailed above a fortnight in this wide ocean before the men began to murmur; for observing the wind to set constantly from east to west, they apprehended there would be no possibility of returning, and therefore concluded they must inevitably perish, if they missed.

missed the land they were made to expect. Their fears however were in some measure dissipated on the nineteenth, when they observed some birds flying over their ships, and saw abundance of weeds driving by them on the twenty-second. Having continued their course westward for some time longer, and meeting with no land, the seamen began again to mutiny, and were near upon resolving to throw their admiral overboard, and endeavour to return to Europe; but happily for Columbus, they were once more pacified by seeing birds, weeds, and even a shrub with berries upon it swim by them, which gave them fresh hopes the land was at no great distance. Accordingly, on the eleventh of October, about ten at night, the admiral first discovered a light upon the island of Guanahani, or St. Salvador, which last name he gave it, in consideration that the sight of it delivered him and his men from their fears of perishing. In the morning the ships anchored near the island, which the natives beheld with the greatest astonishment, whilst the admiral went ashore in his boat, and took possession of the country in the name of their Catholic majesties. The poor people were extremely pleased with the beads and other toys the Spaniards distributed amongst them, and followed Columbus and his people wherever they went, seeming to adore them as if they were come from heaven. From this island they sailed to Cuba, and Hispaniola, whence they departed for Europe, and arrived at Palos on the thirteenth of March 1492-3,

where

where a solemn procession and thanksgiving were made for their return, and the admiral was received by their Catholic majesties with the greatest honours.

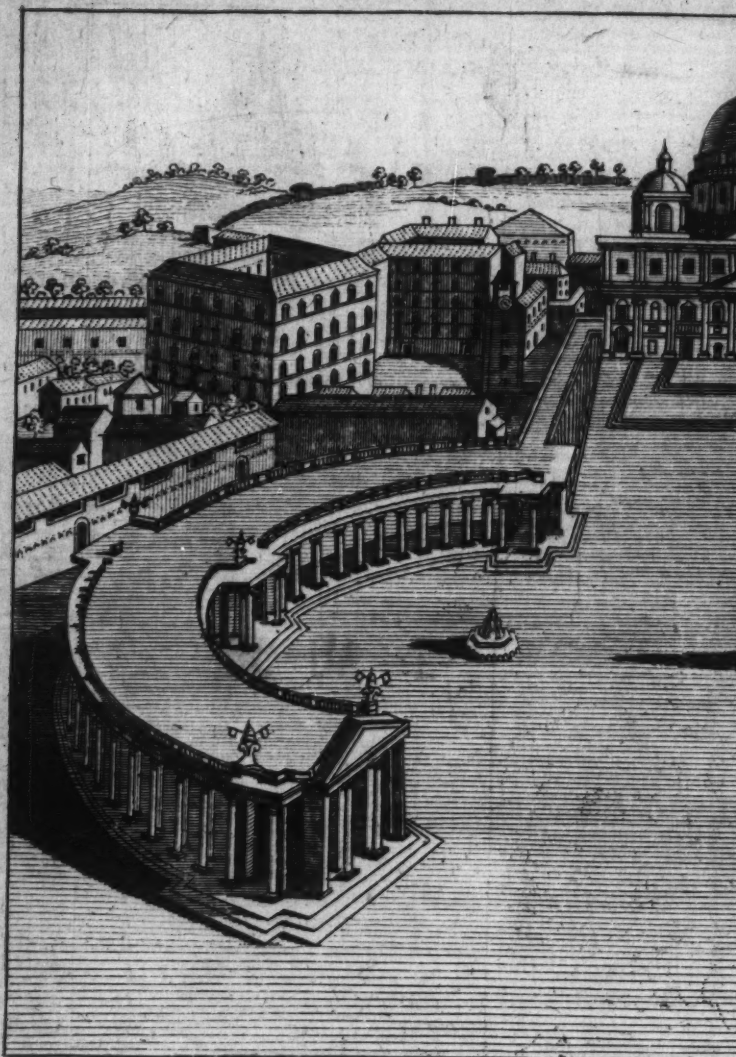
Columbus afterwards made two voyages to this new world, which yet has not taken its name from him, as might be naturally expected it would have done, but from Americ Vesputio, a Florentine by birth, who was sent in 1497, by Emanuel, king of Portugal, to continue the discoveries begun by Columbus.

Galileo, or Galilei, the son of Vinzenzo Galileo, a nobleman of Florence, was born the 19th of February, 1564. In 1592, he was appointed professor of mathematics in the university of Padua; soon after which, he wrote a treatise of mechanics, and shewed, after the problem of Archimedes, the manner of finding the alloy, or mixt metals, by means of the hydrostatical balance. While he was professor at Padua, he invented the telescope, confirmed the system of Copernicus, and discovered wonders in the starry regions, till then hid from the sight of mortals. One of the first of his discoveries was that of four of Jupiter's satellites, which he called the Medicean stars, or planets, in honour of Cosmo the Second, grand duke of Tuscany, who was of that noble family; and sent for Galileo from Padua, and made him professor of mathematics at Pisa, in 1611; and soon after inviting him to Florence, gave him the post and title of General

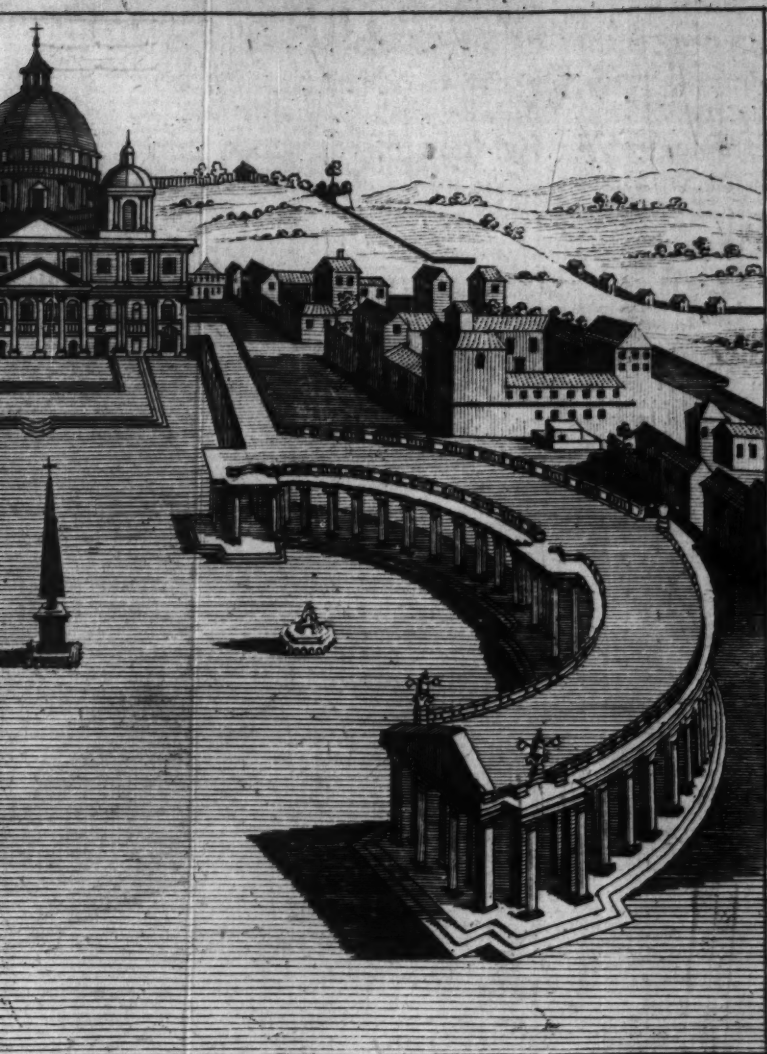
Philosopher and Mathematician to his highness. In 1612, having observed some solar spots, he printed that discovery the year following at Rome, in which, and in some other pieces, he ventured to assert the truth of the Copernican system, and brought several new arguments to confirm it. This startled the jealous eyes of the Jesuits, who thereupon procured a citation for him to appear before the Holy Office at Rome, in 1615, where he was charged with heresy, for maintaining that the sun was in the center of the world, and immoveable by local motion; and that the earth is not the center of the world, nor immoveable, but actually moves by a diurnal motion: both which propositions were declared contrary to the word of God. He was detained by the inquisition at Rome for upwards of a year, when sentence was passed against him, by which he was enjoined to renounce his heretical opinions, and not to defend them either by word or writing, nor even to insinuate them into the mind of any person whatsoever; and he obtained his discharge, only by a promise to conform himself to this order. He however went on making new discoveries in the planetary system, and occasionally publishing them; upon which he was again cited before the inquisition in 1632, obliged to abjure his doctrines in the most solemn manner, and committed prisoner till the year 1634, when his books were burnt at Rome.

He





The West End of



St. Peter's at Rome .

He was author of several noble and useful inventions and discoveries, besides those already mentioned. In astronomy, he discovered the trepidation or vibration of the moon ; as also the inequalities, or mountains, on its surface. By the frequent eclipses of the Medicæan stars, he had thoughts also of finding out the longitude much better than by the lunar eclipses ; upon which he composed his tables of their motions. In geometry, he invented the cycloid or trochoid ; and in mechanics, he first found the exact degree of celerity in the descent of bodies, by the force of gravity.



S E C T. V.

Particular Descriptions of the most remarkable Public Buildings, and other singular Productions of Art in Italy.

C H U R C H E S.

THE cathedral church of St. Peter at Rome, after which model St. Paul's cathedral in London was built, is universally allowed to be the noblest and most magnificent church in the world. The harmony and proportion of the architecture are so judiciously observed, that nothing appears distinguished above the rest ; the great beauty and variety of carved and gilt work,

work, the exquisite paintings, embossed works and statues of marble, brass, and other materials, are so highly finished, and so happily disposed, that the whole fills the mind of the spectator with admiration and pleasing astonishment.

This church, which stands on the site of Caligula's circus. was founded by Constantine the Great, in the year 324, and dedicated to the twelve apostles: he spared no expence of raising it to the highest pitch of beauty and splendor, and many Christian princes contributed largely towards the maintenance and repairs of it, but none more than king Pepin of France and Charlemagne, who bestowed whole provinces on it; notwithstanding which, the popes found themselves under a necessity to rebuild it from the very foundations. Pope Julius II. began the present structure, 1550, according to a plan of the celebrated architect Bramante Lazari. The next pope, Paul III. continued the building under the direction of Michael Angelo, who greatly improved the former plan; and the church was finished under the pontificate of Julius V. about an hundred years after it was begun.

The length of this famous cathedral, measured on the outside, including the portico, is seven hundred and twenty-two feet, and on the inside, five hundred and ninety-four feet: the length of the cross, from north to south, is four hundred and ninety feet on the outside,
and

and on the inside four hundred and thirty-eight feet; the breadth of the body of the church is eighty-six feet, and the height one hundred and forty-four feet; the circumference of the cupola, on the inside, is six hundred and twenty feet, and the diameter of it within, one hundred and forty-three feet. The breadth of the front of the church is four hundred feet, and from the pavement to the top of the cross that stands over the ball, four hundred and thirty-two feet; the diameter of the ball is eight feet four inches, and the height of the cross above the ball is twenty-five feet.

A circular area, which lies before this magnificent edifice, is encompassed by a beautiful peristyle, or colonade, consisting of two hundred and eighty-four marble pillars of the Doric order, which support an architrave, adorned with a vast number of statues of saints and martyrs, done by the best hands, and in the grandest style. In the middle of the area stands an obelisk of Egyptian marble, seventy-two feet high, and a fine fountain on each side of it is a great addition to the beauty of this spacious court, from whence there is a flight of steps to a grand platform or terrace, that leads into the lofty portico before the church. Over this portico, which is supported by pillars three fathoms in circumference, are the statues of our Saviour and the twelve apostles; and there is a fine balcony, wherein the popes are crowned in view of all the people. The body of the church, as well as the cupola,

Q3

which

which is adorned with curious Mosaic work, is sustained by large square pillars like those of St. Paul's; and under the middle of the cupola stands the high altar, which has a magnificence hardly to be paralleled. It is ninety feet in height, being a kind of pavilion supported by four wreathed columns of brass, adorned with foliage, and on the top of the canopy are four angels of gilt brass, holding festoons of flowers most beautifully carved; and between them are figures of children playing on the cornice. We ascend to the dome by a winding stair-case without steps, and from thence to the ball, by stairs not very commodious, which lie between the outer and inner dome. St. Peter's chair is all of brass, gilt, and supported by four gigantic figures, representing four fathers of the church, with a gilded glory over them reaching quite to the roof. Under this chair there is an altar, and on each side are stately monuments of brass and marble, of excellent workmanship. It is scarce possible to describe the riches and beauty of the little chapels and altars round this church. But among all the ornaments of this cathedral, perhaps none deserve our attention more than the Mosaic pictures, which represent a great many pieces of scripture and ecclesiastical history, and exceed any thing of that kind that ever was done by the antients.

Next to St. Peter's, the cathedral church of Milan is by some esteemed the most magnificent structure in Italy. It is a vast Gothic edifice,

edifice, about five hundred feet in length, and two hundred in breadth, and is entirely of marble. A hundred and sixty pillars of white marble support its stately roof, each of them valued at ten thousand crowns. The choir is wainscotted, and adorned with beautiful carved work, representing the histories of the gospel. The high altar is very sumptuous and majestic; and here are two noble brazen pulpits, each of them running round a large pillar like a balcony, and supported by huge figures of the same metal. As to the statues about this church, their number is prodigious, many of them as big as the life, and some of exquisite workmanship; but those who make them amount to eleven thousand must include in the computation, every particular figure in the history-pieces, and all those small ones that are frequently placed about the larger statues.

Underneath this church is a chapel, where the body of St. Charles de Boromeo is preserved intire, and where that saint has a shrine of crystal, embellished with gold, silver, and precious stones; the walls of this chapel are lined with plates of silver.

The cathedral of Florence is one of the most superb and beautiful structures in Europe, the walls and pavement being of marble of various colours. It is four hundred and eighty feet long, and three hundred and eighty feet high to the top of the cross. The cupola is lofty

and of a vast circumference, being the first of the kind that ever was built in Europe, and hence St. Peter's at Rome was copied. The painting on the inside of it represents the resurrection and the last judgment; and the body of the church is likewise adorned with the finest paintings, sculptures, and a vast number of stately monuments. The bell-tower or steeple, detached from the church, is much admired, being a hundred and eighty feet high, all of fine marble of several colours, and adorned with a great variety of curious carvings and figures. The baptistery, which stands before the church, was antiently a temple of Mars, and is now remarkable for its three brazen gates, on which several pieces of scripture-history are so exquisitely represented in bass-relief, that Michael Angelo used to say, they were good enough to be the gates of Paradise.

In this cathedral is a meridian, traced by Paul Toscanelli, upwards of three centuries past, which, though it is in general but very little known, is yet the greatest of all the monuments in this kind.

The chapel of St. Laurence, in this city, adjoining to the collegiate church of the same name, which is the burial place of the Medicæan family, is universally allowed to be the finest and most costly piece of work in the whole world. This chapel is an octagon, having a spacious cupola for its roof, and its walls are incrustèd with jasper, agate, lapis lazuli, oriental

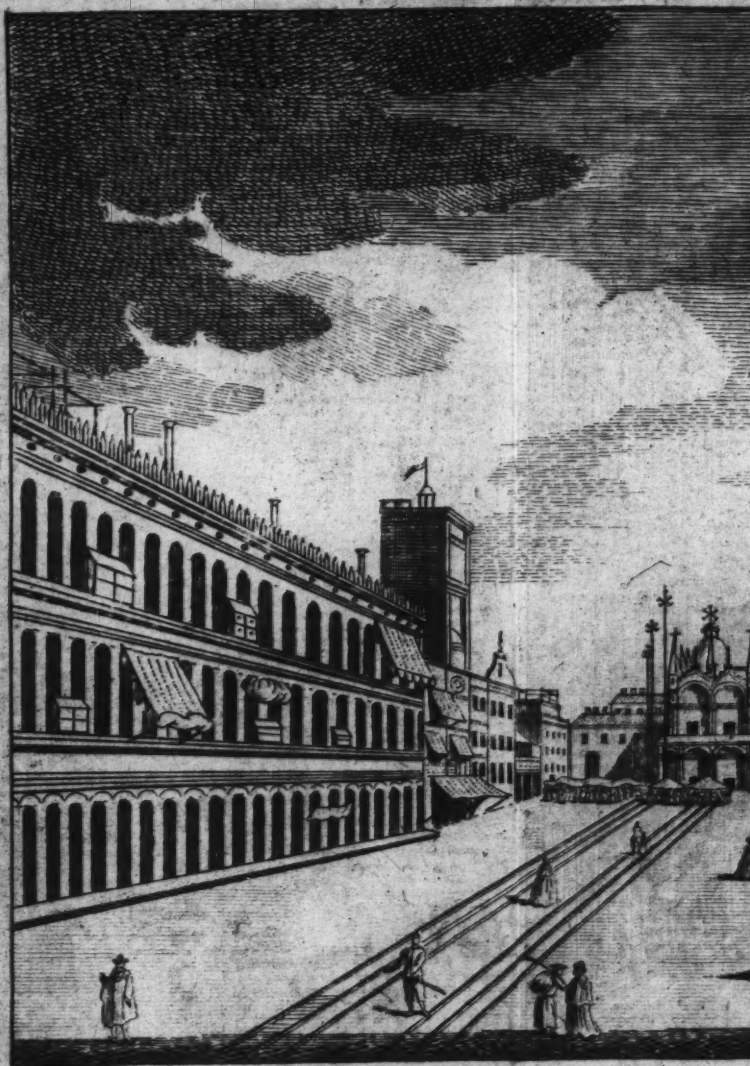
ental alabaſter, and other rich materials. All round it are the tombs of the great dukes of Tufcany, compoſed of porphyry, granite, and the moſt precious marbles; and on each tomb is a column of jaſper, with a ducal crown on the top of it, enriched with a variety of jewels. Above theſe tombs the ſtatues of the great dukes are placed in niches, all of braſs gilt, and large as the life. In the middle of each face of the octagon riſes a double pilafter of jaſper, and on the pedeſtal of each are ſeveral emblematical figures, curiouſly wrought with precious ſtones. The pavement is of the fineſt marble, and the roof adorned with lapis lazuli, of the brighteſt blue, and ſpangled with ſtars and veins of gold. This ſplendid and ſumptuous ſtructure was begun above an hundred years ago, but is not yet finiſhed, though it has already coſt many millions ſterling.

The cathedral of Piſa, is one of the moſt regular, beautiful, and lightsome pieces of Gothic building to be ſeen in Europe. The choir is of the fineſt marble, and the roof is ſupported by eighty columns of the ſame ſtone, all of one ſolid piece, being part of the ſpoils taken by the Piſans, in their eaſtern expeditions, when the republic was in a flouriſhing condition. The pavement is alſo of marble, but of different colours, curiouſly intermixed; and the paintings, eſpecially of the choir, are done by the greateſt maſters. The three gates of this church, which are of braſs, are exquisitely wrought with the hiſtory of our Saviour's birth,

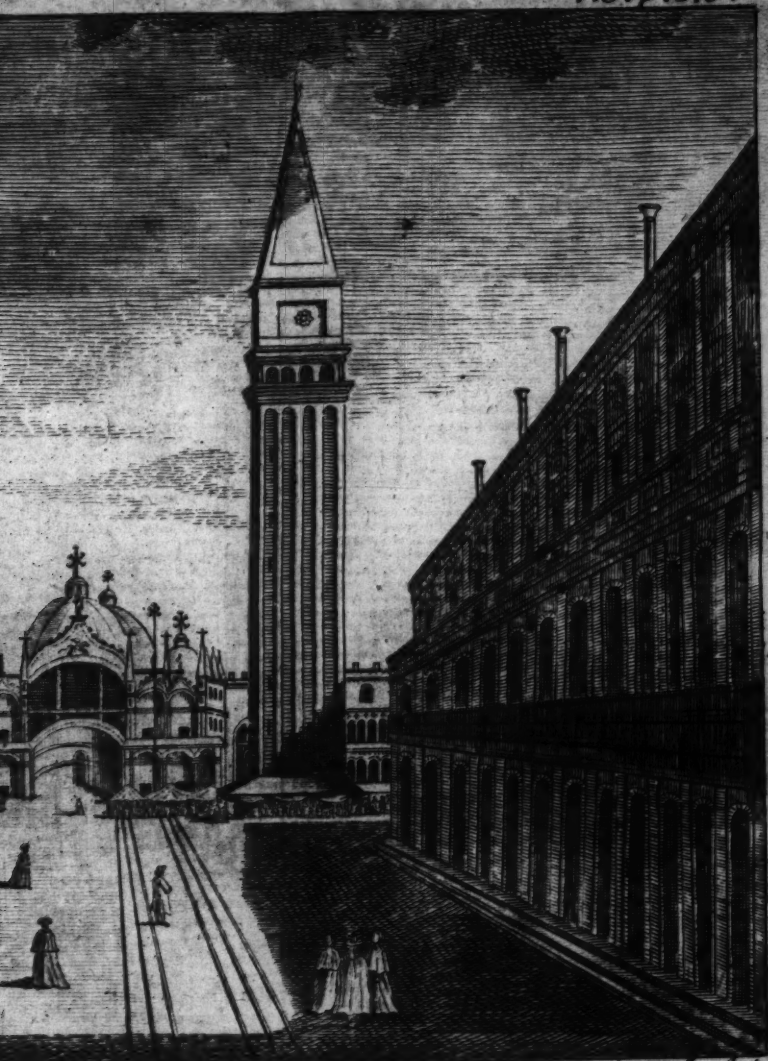
birth, life, and passion. The baptistery is a fine marble structure, shaped like the cupola, of St. Peter's at Rome, and supported by beautiful pillars.

Near the cathedral is a round tower, of beautiful marble, ornamented with seven rows of pillars, besides that of the turret. It was built about six hundred years ago, is about four fathoms in diameter, and is particularly famous for its inclination, which makes it look, at first sight, as if it threatened ruin.

M. de la Condamine measured, with a line and plummet, the height and inclination of the tower of Pisa; whence it appears, that the defect of its level is about thirteen feet, Paris measure, which is upwards of two and twenty feet English measure, counting from the foot of the balustrade, placed on the platform, to the foot of the cupola, or little turret on top, in which are the bells. He found the height of the said platform, above the level of the place, or superficies of the ground, on which the cathedral stands, to be a hundred and thirty-three feet, to which adding about twenty-seven feet more for the height of the turret, which leans more than the body of the tower, eight feet for the depth of the trench; and about two feet which the line measured since the operation, uncharged with any weight, would have appeared shorter; we shall have for the total height of the tower a hundred and seventy feet, Paris measure,
on



St Marks Place



at Venice

Hulst sculp

on the side where it inclines most, insomuch, that were it set up again, it would be within a very little of 172 feet high.

Amongst the cathedrals of Italy, that of Sienna, in particular, deserves attention: this is really a master piece in the Gothic style, and may be viewed with pleasure, after St. Peter's itself. The walls, both within and without, are faced with marble of different colours; and the roof is azure, sprinkled with stars of gold. The portico of this church is very magnificent, and the whole fabric is adorned with variety of excellent statues, busts, &c. and particularly with the heads of above a hundred and seventy popes in alabaster. The windows are formed by a multitude of little pillars, retiring one behind another; and the large columns are carved with fruit and foliage from the bottom to the very top. But above all, the pavement of the church is exquisitely fine, being composed of marble of various colours, forming a sort of Mosaic work, wherein is represented, in a most lively manner, the story of Abraham going to sacrifice his son, the passage of the Israelites through the Red sea, and other histories of the Old testament. In order to preserve this beautiful work, they cover it with boards, which are easily taken up to satisfy the curiosity of strangers.

The cathedral church of St. Mark in Venice, is built after the Grecian manner, almost square,

square, and covered with four domes or cupolas; but it is neither very large nor lofty. The whole is supported by thirty-six pillars of fine marble; a beautiful balustrade runs round the top of it, and the frontispiece is adorned with columns of porphyry and jasper. The high altar is a master-piece of its kind, and the back of it is embellished with a vast number of curious pictures, enamelled after the Grecian taste, set in gold, and enriched with precious stones. The great quantity of Mosaic work, with which the roof and pavement of this church is adorned, is very much admired, having now lasted near seven hundred years, without any diminution of its beauty.

The cathedral of Loretto, is a most magnificent fabric, built in the form of a cross, and adorned with a vast variety of statues and paintings by the greatest masters. The cupola is a bold and lofty one, supported by twelve stately pillars, which are covered with paintings; and the doors of the church, which are said to be of Corinthian brass, are curiously wrought with bass-reliefs, representing several pieces of scripture history. But this church is most famous for the *Santa Casa*, or *Holy House*, which stands in the middle of it, and occasions a vast resort of pilgrims from all parts of Europe. This house, or apartment, which is pretended to be the same in which the blessed Virgin lived at Nazareth, and to have been brought hither by angels, is about thirty feet long, and thirteen broad, and the walls appear to be of brick,

brick, cemented with common lime and sand ; but as to the roof and pavement, they are acknowledged to be of modern workmanship. At the west end of it is a little window ; and at the east end, over the chimney, is placed a cedar statue of the Virgin, holding the infant Jesus on her right arm. The statue is about four feet high, and usually adorned with a mantle of gold brocade embroidered with precious stones ; and on its breast hangs a rich fleece of jewels, with a collar and cross of the same materials. But the most splendid and costly of all the virgin's array, is her triple crown, which, with a little one for her child, was presented to her by Lewis the Thirteenth of France. They are both of massy gold, and are enriched with diamonds, of immense value, which dazzle the eyes of the beholders. Round the niche, wherein the statue is placed, a row of precious stones of different kinds is so disposed, as to form a sort of rainbow of various colours. Twelve lamps of massy gold, said to weigh thirty-seven pounds each, hang before the statue ; and before the altar hangs one of a much larger size, remarkable for the excellency of the workmanship, which was a present from the republic of Venice. This altar, which is of pure beaten silver, was presented by one of the dukes of Tuscany.

The treasury of this celebrated place, is filled with riches surpassing all imagination. It is a long room, or gallery, with a vaulted roof adorned with excellent paintings ; on one side

whereof are seventeen or eighteen large presses, with folding doors, the repositories of gold, diamonds, and whatever else is valuable, being the offerings of emperors, kings, princes, &c. for several ages past. Silver, as Mr. Addison observes, can scarce find admission here, and gold looks but poorly among such an incredible number of precious stones. It is surprising to view the costly services for the altar, consisting of lapis lazuli, amber, agate, coral, and crystal. In one press, there is a spread eagle covered with diamonds; in another, the images of our Saviour and the Samaritan woman in gold, and there is an altar-piece, enriched with jewels, valued at a hundred and forty thousand crowns. In this treasury are likewise kept the rich habits of the Virgin, of which she has a change at least for every day in the year. But it would be endless to enumerate all the valuable curiosities that are heaped up here from all parts of Christendom.

In the city of Naples, there are four principal churches, thirty-two of a lower class, for magnificence, and seventy more of a third rank, together with a vast number of churches belonging to convents and confraternities. The magnificence of some of those churches exceeds imagination; their gates, porticos, frontispieces, chapels, altars, and tombs, may be justly looked upon as the finest pieces of architecture in the world. The paintings, statues, vessels of gold and silver, and other church ornaments, are numberless, and of incredible

credible beauty and value. The roofs, wain-scots, and walls, are all covered with pieces of the finest marble, most curiously laid together; or with compartments of excellent joyner's work, adorned with carvings and basso-relievo's, gilt, and enriched with the works of the most celebrated painters. There is nothing scarcely to be seen but jasper, porphyry, and other precious stones, done in Mosaic, of all fashions, and all master-pieces in each kind.

In a cloyster belonging to the stately monastery of the Carthusians in this city, is the celebrated crucifix of Michael Angelo, done, as is pretended, after the life, and from a certain peasant, whom that artist crucified for the purpose. It is painted upon wood, and is about half a foot high. In the convent of the Carmelites, in this city, is exhibited a miraculous crucifix, which is said to have bowed the head to avoid a cannon-ball shot against that monastery, by order of Don Pedro, prince of Arragon, when he besieged Naples, and for which he was immediately punished: for a cannon-ball being shot from the tower of the monastery, carried off his head; the prince not having the sagacity of the crucifix, to stoop his head upon the approach of the ball.

But a miracle, for which Naples is famous, is wrought in the cathedral of that city, by the head of St. Januarius, formerly bishop of Puz-zoli, who suffered as a martyr, by having his

head struck off. On the day of that saint's martyrdom, a lady is said to have filled two little vials with his blood, which have been preserved ever since, as well as the head, in a magnificent chapel of the cathedral. These relics are carried in solemn procession on the first Sunday in May, annually; and on their return, are placed on the altar of the chapel, during high mass; at which time, the blood in the vials, before congealed and dried up, begins to dissolve and bubble, till it becomes quite liquid. The same miracle is performed upon two other days every year, on the 29th of September, and 16th of December, on the high altar of the cathedral. And if, at any time, this blood fails of dissolving, at its approach to the head, the Neapolitans consider that circumstance as predictive of some heavy judgment from heaven: but when it liquifies regularly, they regard it as a token of the divine favour; upon which occasion there are many rich offerings made at the shrine of this saint; and except the holy house of Loretto, it is observed, that there is not a relic in the world which has brought more riches than this into the church: for the quantities of gold, silver, and jewels, which have been offered at the shrine of St. Januarius, are truly wonderful.

The churches of Genoa are likewise beautiful and magnificent; the cathedral is a noble structure of white and black marble, intermixed, and all massive square stones. In the treasury

fury belonging to this church, is, amongst other relics, preserved with the greatest veneration, for upwards of six hundred years, a dish, or rather an hexagon bowl, which they pretend to be made of emerald, and which they say, was made use of by our Saviour at the Paschal Supper.

The cathedral church of St. Petrona, at Bologna, must, when finished, be a most superb structure. It was begun upon so large and magnificent a plan, that Alberto, a celebrated architect, said, above an hundred years ago, it would not be finished at the end of the world. What is most remarkable in this unfinished structure, is a meridian, traced above a century ago, by the illustrious astronomer, Dominic Cassini, which is well known throughout all Europe. It is drawn on a copper-plate, set in the pavement of the church, and is 220 feet in length. The rays of the sun dart upon it from a hole in the roof of one of the side isles of the church; it begins exactly under the hole, and terminates at the bottom of the great nave. It has divisions engraved on it, for the degrees of the ecliptic, with the several signs marked at their proper distances: the hole through which the sunbeams dart upon the line, is about ten inches square, and about ninety feet high above the line.



PALACES, and other REMARK- ABLE BUILDINGS.

THE pope's palace at Rome, in which he usually resides in the winter, is called the Vatican, and is a large and stately building, but very irregular, consisting of a great number of fine structures, ill disposed and put together. It stands near St. Peter's church, and contains according to some writers, above twelve thousand rooms, and though the outside has nothing that raises admiration, the inside makes ample amends: for the spectator is astonished at the grandeur of the apartments, and the beauty of the paintings, wherein the greatest masters of Italy have displayed their art. In the Great Hall, or *Sala Regia*, where the pope gives audience to ambassadors, there is an admirable piece of the celebrated Raphael, representing Leo in his pontifical habit meeting Attila, king of the Huns: and Michael Angelo has exceeded himself in the conversion of St. Paul. The same hand has inimitably drawn the Last Judgment, in a chapel adjoining to this hall, which is likewise admired for the beauty of its structure. The pleasure-house, called the Belvidere, abounds also with excellent paintings, and its gardens are very delightful, being laid out in pleasant walks,

walks, and adorned with fountains, cascades, grottos, &c. together with a great variety of antique statues, many of them of excellent workmanship, particularly that of Venus coming out of a bath, a dying Cleopatra, and Laocoon, with his two sons, and serpents twisting about them, cut out of one block of marble. But the famous library, with the building that contains it, engages the attention of a stranger more than all the other beauties of the Vatican. The structure is finely painted both within and without, and the library itself is, perhaps, the noblest collection in the world, both of printed books and manuscripts, especially the latter, having been much augmented by the library of the Elector Palatine, from Heidelberg, that of the duke of Urbino, and that of Christina, queen of Sweden. A Hebrew Bible; the four Gospels, written by the hand of St. Chrysostom; a Virgil, and a Terence, above fourteen hundred years old, are to be seen among the ancient manuscripts, of which, indeed, there is a surprising number in Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Arabic, Chaldean, and several other languages; some of them remarkable for the curious manner in which they are written, and others for their scarcity and antiquity.

There is belonging to the Vatican, an arsenal, which, it is pretended, contains a sufficient number of arms for 20,000 horse, and 40,000 foot; and from the Vatican there is a communication, by means of a stately gallery,
into

into another palace near it, called the palace of St. Angelo, which has been fortified with four bastions, by pope Urban the Eighth; and is now converted into a strong castle, in which the pope's triple crown, and other pontificalia are deposited: it is also a place for prisoners of state.

The Capitol is a modern structure, raised upon the ruins, and even upon some of the foundations of the ancient Capitol, after a design of Michael Angelo. It consists of three separate edifices, one of which, the front structure, is the residence of the senator, and the other two, which compose the two wings of the front house, are the residences of the conservators of the city.

Next to the Vatican, the most celebrated palace in Italy, is that of Pitti, at Florence, belonging to the grand duke of Tuscany. It is called also the New Palace, to distinguish it from another on the opposite side of the Arno, called the Old Palace. It is built in the rustic manner, which, as well as the Tuscan order of architecture, owes its original to this country. The front towards the street, has a range of twenty-two large windows, in each story, with fine pillars at the sides of them, and other proper ornaments; but the court, or area within, is too small to view the building to advantage. The duke's apartments are very richly furnished, and adorned with exquisitely fine paintings.

From

From the New Palace, there is a private passage to the Old Palace, by means of a close stately gallery, which runs over the river, and houses, the length of half a mile. The gallery of this palace is filled with an amazing variety of curiosities, both of nature and art, particularly pictures and statues, perhaps the most curious and valuable in the world. One side of the gallery is a continued window, under which are ranged fine marble statues, of the Roman emperors, and ancient heroes, and above it are the pictures of the most learned men of different ages and countries. The opposite side is covered with the pictures of the Medicean family, and those of the most celebrated generals, ancient and modern. Amongst the busts of the emperors, are those of Caligula, Otho, Pertinax, and several others, which are uncommon, and almost singular in their kind; and many of those which are more common deserve particular notice for the excellence of the sculpture, as those of Augustus, Vespasian, and Marcus Aurelius. There is also an admirable bust of Alexander the Great, looking up to heaven, in whose countenance the sculptor seems to have expressed his concern for want of new worlds to conquer. The entire figure of a vestal virgin, with the sacred fire burning before her, is a curious piece of antiquity; and so is a Morpheus in touch-stone, being the figure of a boy asleep, with a bundle of poppies in his hand, in which manner that deity is usually represented by ancient statuaries. There

are

are likewise in this gallery, a Narcissus, a Flora, a Gladiator, and many other statues, to the number of three hundred or upwards, valuable for their antiquity and excellent workmanship.

Nor is this all: there are six or seven rooms adjoining to the gallery, which are filled with all manner of curiosities. One of them contains a collection of idols, sepulchral lamps, talismans, medals, and other antiquities of the like nature.

But the most valuable curiosities of this palace are kept in a magnificent octagonal room, called the Tribune, twenty four feet in diameter, and covered with an arched cupola: the floor is paved with several sorts of marble, admirably laid together; the walls are hung with velvet, and beautified with an infinite variety of curious ornaments: the windows are of polished crystal, and the inside of the cupola richly inlaid with mother-of-pearl. Among the curiosities preserved in this apartment, is a large diamond, weighing 139 carats, and valued at about 200,000*l.* sterling; an antique head of Julius Cæsar on an entire turquois, about the bigness of a hen's egg; a cabinet full of vessels of agate, cornelian, porphyry, coral, rock crystal, &c. a large table inlaid with oriental jasper, rubies, topazes, and other precious stones; the labours of Hercules, all in massy silver; two globes of an uncommon size: the celestial, studded with the

the richest jewels, representing the constellations, and casting such a lustre, as can scarcely be borne by the naked eye. Here is likewise a noble collection of curious pictures and statues, among which is the celebrated statue of Venus, commonly called Venus of Medicis, the delicate shape and beauty of which, are confessedly beyond description; and in this apartment are also a prodigious number of antient busts and medals.

The grand duke has a country palace, called Pratolino, which is a beautiful and majestic structure, but is peculiarly celebrated for its noble waterworks. In the gardens of this ducal villa, is a fine grotto, of which the roof alone is said to have cost thirty thousand ducats, being all of coral, mother of pearl, and other costly materials. The walls are lined with the same materials, and the pilasters are adorned with an organ, which, by means of water, plays several tunes, whilst the god Pan joins his pipe to the music, and is answered by the warbling of a great variety of artificial birds. In the basin there is a large dolphin carrying a naked woman on his back, and swimming about, with several other figures, all moving as if alive. In another grotto, Galatea comes out of a door in a sea-chariot, and returns again the same way, after having sailed some time upon the water. In one place, an angel plays a tune upon a trumpet; in another, a clown carries a dish of water to a serpent, who lifts up his head and drinks

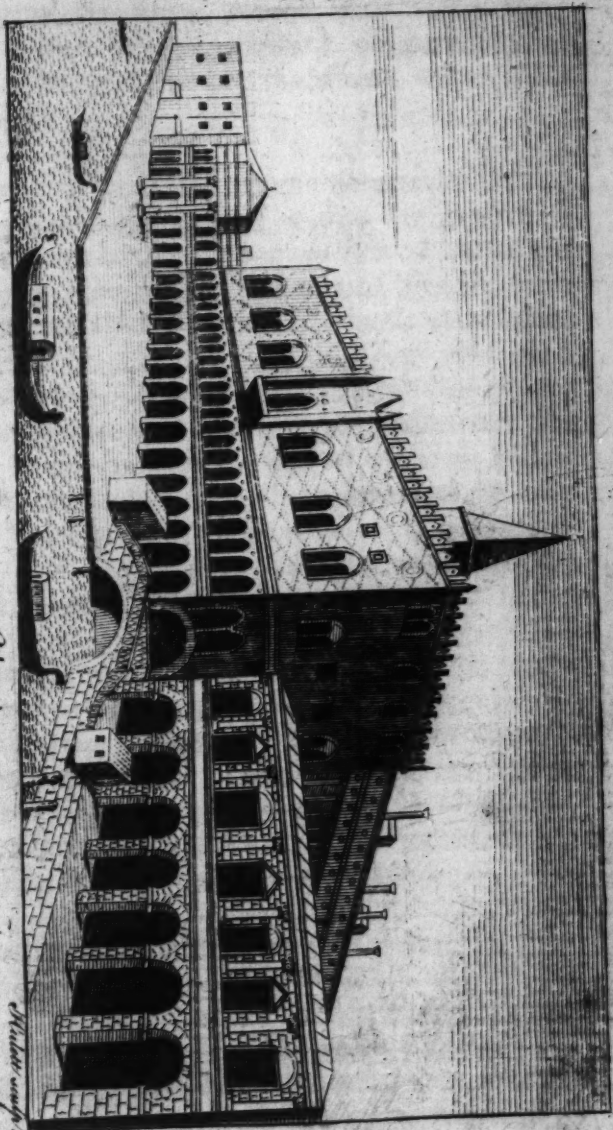
drinks it: here smiths are at work, there mills are a going, and a great many other curiosities of this kind, all moved by water, may be seen in the grottos of these delightful gardens.

The royal palace at Turin, is a beautiful structure, in the modern taste, with a gallery an hundred paces long, to which there is an ascent by a magnificent stair-case, adorned with fine paintings, by the best masters. This gallery is furnished with a variety of curiosities; the apartments are magnificent, and richly furnished, and the great hall is finely painted. Near this metropolis, are several other royal palaces, with fine gardens, and curious water-works.

The doge's palace, at Venice, is a stately and magnificent Gothic structure, joining to St. Mark's church, and forming one of the façades of a noble and celebrated square, called the Piazza of St. Mark, 280 paces long, and 100 paces broad. The apartments of the doge's palace are richly furnished, and adorned with the paintings of the greatest masters. The Sala, or great hall of this palace, is the senate-house; it is 60 paces long, and has 2000 seats. Here also is an apartment, called the Hall of the Council of Ten, and the Little Arsenal of the nobles, where are fire arms for 1000 men, always charged and primed, besides swords and pikes.

Next

The Doge's Palace at Venice.



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Next to the ducal palace, the most magnificent is that of the patriarch of Aquileia, of which the great statuary Sansovio, wrote a description.

It would be endless to enumerate the sumptuous palaces of Venice, which are reckoned no less than 400, and are sufficient to adorn ten large cities. The number of bridges built over the canals of Venice, is almost incredible, being reckoned no less than 4,000, all of stone; besides wooden bridges: but the most considerable bridge in this city, is one built over the grand canal, in the middle of the city, called the Rialto, and universally allowed to be one of the finest bridges in Europe. It was built in the year 1591, after a design of the celebrated Michael Angelo; and is said to have cost 250,000 ducats. It consists only of one single arch, all of marble, has rails on each side, and two rows of shops in the middle. The dimensions of this bridge are as follows: the compass of the arch is just one third part of a circle, the width of it on the level of the water, from one extremity to the other, is 95 feet, and the height of it twenty-four.

Among the stately palaces of Bologna, that of the pope's legate is the most worthy of notice. It is an admirable structure, richly furnished, with a fine cabinet of curiosities. It has a stately portico, over which is placed a statue in brass, of pope Gregory the Thirteenth, weighing eleven thousand pounds; and

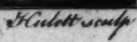
and on each side are the statues of two other popes, finely executed

In the middle of this city, is a leaning brick tower, called the Tower of Asinelli: its form is square, but its base appears much straighter than that of the Tower of Pifa. It is three hundred and seventy-one feet high: here also is another leaning tower, called the Garisenda, of the same materials, the same form, and the same diameter, seemingly as the tower of Asinelli, and appears to the eye to lean no less than the tower of Pifa: but the upper part of the Garisenda is tumbled down, or has been demolished, in order to prevent its fall.

About two miles from Milan, is a nobleman's feat, which produces such a surprising echo, as can scarce be equalled in the world. Mr. Addison tells us, that, upon firing a pistol, he had the sound returned fifty-six times, though the air was then foggy, and therefore not proper for making the experiment to the best advantage: at first, the repetitions were very quick, but the intervals were greater in proportion as the sound decayed. Nothing like such an echo, it seems, was designed by the architect, but it is occasioned by two parallel walls, of a considerable length, between which the sound is reverberated from one to the other, till the undulation is quite spent. Others tell us, that the sound of one musical instrument in this place, will seem like a great number



A View of the Rialto at



Venice.

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ber of instruments playing together in concert.

In the city of Orvieto, is a well cut into a rock, at the charge of pope Clement the Seventh, to supply the city with water. This well is 250 cubits deep, and has a double stair case, consisting of 550 steps, and enlightened by windows cut through the rock. The mules, which bring up the water upon their backs, go down by one stair-case, and come up by another.



S E C T. VI.

Curious Remains of Antiquity in Italy. and the Italian Islands ; remarkable Laws, Customs, and Traditions of the Inhabitants ; with a Summary View of the most extraordinary Revolutions among them.

REMAINS of ANTIQUITY.

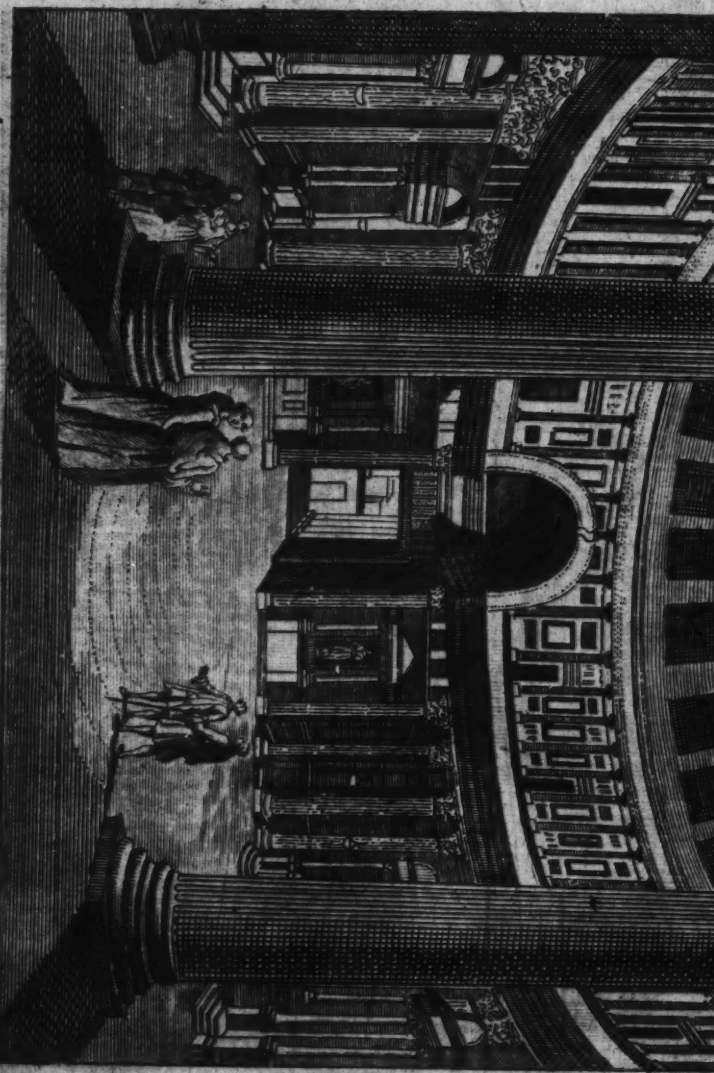
ITALY abounds with so many noble monuments of antiquity, that a particular description of them all, would greatly exceed the limits projected for such subjects in the design of this work. The brevity necessary to be observed therefore renders such a description impracticable, as well as inconsistent ; for

which reason, under this head, such monuments only will be taken notice of, as are most curious, and worthy of observation.

The principal remains of antiquity in Italy, are those of Rome, that celebrated metropolis and once mistress of the world, every part of which is filled with evidences of its ancient grandeur.

In 1573, was found in the ruins of a temple of Romulus, which forms at present the church of St. Cosmas, and St. Damian, at Rome, the shattered remains of a plan of that city, engraved on marble, about the time of the emperor Septimius Severus. These fragments were lately removed to the Capitol, and divided into twenty-six tables, which at present line the walls of the great stair-case.

Of the Pagan temples remaining in that city, the Pantheon, usually called the Rotunda, from its circular form, is one of the most entire and beautiful. It is now dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, and All Saints, as it was anciently to all the heathen deities. This temple is a hundred and forty feet high, and about as many in diameter; its roof is vaulted in form of a dome or cupola, but open at top, from whence the structure receives all its light. The walls are lined with marble, and the roof was formerly covered with brass, which was removed by one of the popes, and converted into four wreathed pillars that support the canopy



The inside of the Pantheon, or Rotunda at Rome
Hubert Poth



V. 5. p. 196.

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nopy of the high altar of St. Peter's church. The portico is exceedingly majestic, being supported by sixteen tall columns of Egyptian granite, each consisting of one stone, of the Corinthian order; and the gate is forty feet high, and twenty wide. The Pantheon was built by Agrippa, son-in-law, of Augustus, as appears by an inscription still remaining over the portico.

The temple of Fortune has withstood the injuries of time, and is now a Christian church; as is also the temple of the Sun, or of Vesta, which is a small round structure, receiving its light from a hole in the top, after the manner of the Pantheon.

The church of St. Stephen, on Mount Celio, was formerly the temple of Faunus. It is a large round edifice, supported by two circles of pillars, one within the other, the pillars of the outermost circle, being less than those of the innermost, and just twice the number.

Without the walls is the church of St. Constantia, originally a temple of Bacchus, which remains almost entire, and has suffered little alteration. It is likewise of a circular form, sustained by twelve large pillars without, and twelve lesser ones within. The tomb of Bacchus is of porphyry, adorned with vine branches, boys treading grapes, birds, and other animals, in basso-relievo. The roof is also beautified with Mosaic work, representing
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bunches

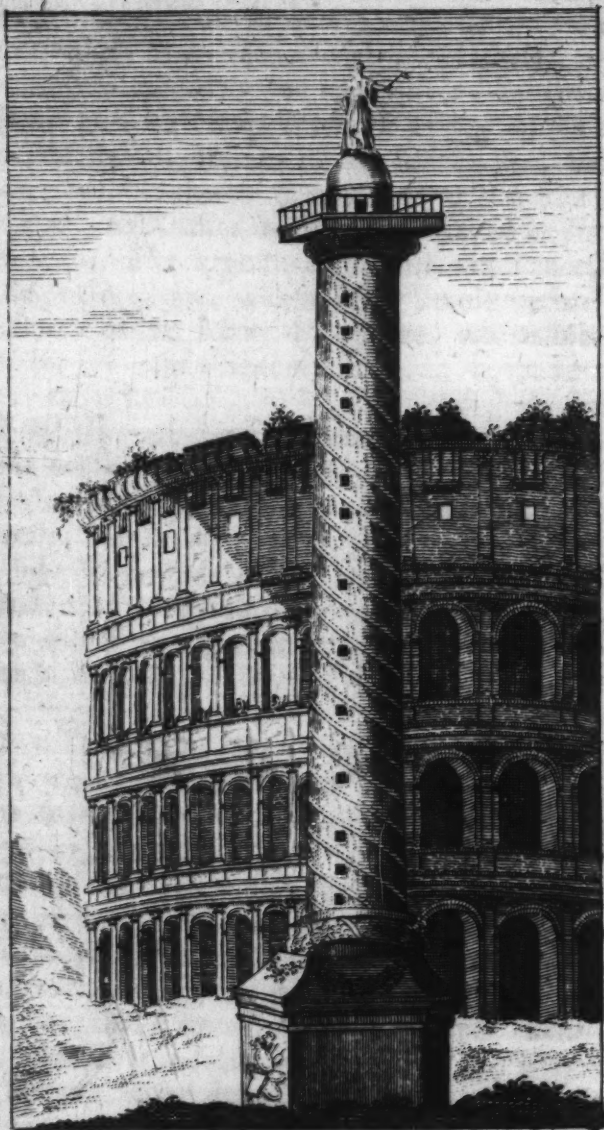
bunches of grapes, and several things relating to the vintage: but some suspect these ornaments are not so ancient as the temple itself.

There is scarce any thing standing of the temple of Peace, except three arches; but by tracing the foundation it appears to have exceeded all the other temples of Rome in its dimensions. The largest marble pillar in Rome, of one entire stone, which now stands before the church of St. Mary Maggiore, was taken out of the ruins of this temple.

Of the triumphal arches remaining in Rome, there is one very entire, which was erected to Septimius Severus, in memory of his Parthian conquests. It is of marble, and adorned on each side with bass reliefs, representing the victories of that emperor, and the under part of it is finely wrought with a vast variety of flowers.

But the arch of Constantine the Great, though somewhat broken and defaced, is the noblest structure of this kind in Rome, and perhaps in the whole world. It was erected to him by the senate, on account of his victory gained over the tyrant Maxentius, and was beautified with excellent statues and bass-reliefs, representing his most memorable actions. Several of these statues have now lost their heads, which, it is said, were removed to Florence, by one of the dukes of Tuscany.

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Trajan's Pillar, and Titus's H. G. 1791 sc
Amphitheatre, at Rome.

The arch of Titus, erected to him in memory of his taking and destroying the city of Jerusalem, is more defaced than either of the former; but one may still discern upon it a representation of the river Jordan, and many of the spoils of Solomon's temple.

There are four columns in Rome that are remarkable for their antiquity and excellent workmanship, particularly that erected in honour of the Emperor Trajan, which is about a hundred and thirty feet high, exclusive of the pedestal. It consists of large pieces of white marble, hollow within, and so curiously cemented, as to seem but one entire stone. Within it there is a spiral stair-case up to the top, to which the light is admitted by many little windows; and the outside is adorned with fine bas-reliefs representing the great actions of that emperor. Instead of a golden urn at the top of it, in which the emperor's ashes were deposited, there is now a statue of St. Peter.

The column of Antoninus Pius is taller than that of Trajan, but inferior to it in the beauty of the workmanship. In the room of the emperor's statue, which was formerly on the top of it, there is one of St. Paul. The ornaments on the outside are of the same nature as those of the Trajan column, and amongst other historical pieces there is a figure of Jupiter Pluvius sending down rain on Antoninus's fainting army, and thunderbolts on his enemies;

mies ; which seems, in some measure, to confirm the story of the Christian Legion, who are said, by their prayers, to have obtained a plentiful shower of rain, when the whole army was fainting with thirst ; and also a dreadful storm of thunder and lightning, which destroyed their enemies.

The Columna Rostrata is a curious piece of antiquity, having been erected to the honour of Caius Duilius, for a signal victory gained over the Carthaginian and Silician fleets, above 250 years before the birth of our Saviour. It was adorned with the beaks of the vessels taken in the engagement, and has an inscription on its base, but great part of it is not legible.

The Milliare column, from whence the Romans reckoned their miles, to all parts of Italy, is still to be seen at Rome. It is of white marble, about eight feet high, and formerly stood in the Forum Romanum, but is now removed to the Capitol.

Of the great number of obelisks that were in antient Rome, the most beautiful now remaining is that in the piazza before St. Peter's church, which was already mentioned, and which was brought hither from the Circus of Nero, in the ruins whereof it had lain buried for many ages. It is one entire piece of Egyptian marble, seventy-two feet high, twelve feet square at the base, and eight at the top, and is computed to weigh above 478 tons,
and

and supposed to be at least three thousand years old. Notwithstanding its immense weight, it was erected on a pedestal thirty feet high, whereon it now stands, by that celebrated architect Dominico Fontana, in the Pontificate of Sixtus the Fifth, with vast expence and labour, and to the astonishment of all the spectators.

An obelisk which stands before the church of St. John de Lateran, is the tallest in Rome, being a hundred and eight feet high, without the pedestal, nine feet and a half at the base, one way, and eight the other. On each face of it are several rows of hieroglyphics, a sort of mystic figures, or characters used by the antient Egyptians, to conceal the secrets of their theology. It is thought to have been consecrated to the sun, in the city of Thebes, about twelve hundred years before the coming of Christ; and having been sent to Rome by the son of the emperor Constantine, was set up in the Circus Maximus, where it was found buried in the ruins, and broken into three pieces. The parts were cemented by the ingenious architect just mentioned, and placed in their present situation.

There is another fine obelisk, which was brought from Heliopolis, in Egypt, and likewise lay a long time broken to pieces among the ruins of the same Circus, till it was joined together and erected in the Piazza del Popoli by the direction of the aforesaid Fontana.

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As to the other obelisks in Rome, they are of a smaller size, and some of them seem to be the tops of obelisks broken off; but the hieroglyphics upon them are sufficient proofs of their antiquity.

Of the ancient theatres and amphitheatres in this city, we find only the ruins of four remaining, viz. some small footsteps of the theatre of Pompey, part of the theatre of Marcellus, of the amphitheatre of Statilius Taurus, and of that of Titus, now called the Coliseo, of which there are large remains. This noble structure was not only remarkable for the beauty of its architecture, but for its dimensions and admirable contrivance, having seats capable of containing eighty-five thousand spectators. It was of an oval figure within, and adorned with statues, representing the several provinces of the Roman empire, in the middle whereof stood that of Rome, holding a golden apple in her hand.

The Circi were large structures either of an oblong or oval form, built for the celebration of various games and exercises, as has been observed elsewhere; but of these there are scarce any traces remaining. One may just discern, indeed, the form of the Circus Maximus, which was built by Tarquinius Priscus, and enlarged to such a prodigious extent, by succeeding princes, as to contain, in their proper

proper seats, two hundred and sixty thousand spectators.

There are still some remains to be seen of several *Thermæ*, or Baths, of the ancient Romans ; but the most considerable are those of Antonine and Dioclesian. The ruins of the former look more like those of a town than of a single fabric ; and those of the latter are near a mile in compass, which is not to be wondered at if we consider, that they contained room for three thousand persons to bathe without seeing one another.

The aqueducts were some of the noblest and most useful designs of the Romans, but of those which conveyed water to antient Rome there are only some small parts remaining ; except that called *Aqua Virginis*, which being repaired by pope Nicholas the Fifth, is still in use, and known by the name of *Fonte di Trivio*. The old aqueduct, which Paul the Fifth restored, brings water from a collection of springs almost forty miles distant from the city.

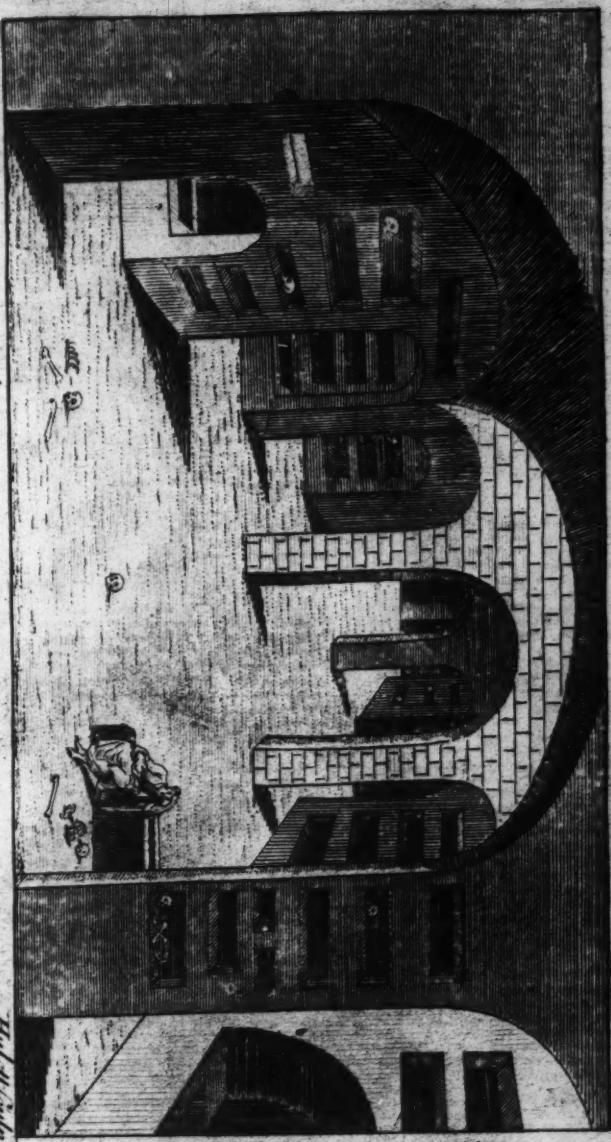
Of the *Mausolea*, or funeral monuments of illustrious persons among the Romans, there are few in Rome, or its neighbourhood, that are remarkable enough to require a description. That of the emperor Adrian is now a part of the castle of St. Angelo, but stripped of its statues and other ornaments.

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The tomb of Caius Sestius is a square pyramid of brick, covered over with white marble; and is still entire, having been repaired by Alexaner the Seventh. It is a hundred and twenty feet high, and almost a hundred broad at the base. We enter into it through a narrow passage, which leads to a vaulted room, where we yet discern the figures of women, flowers, vessels, and other ornaments painted on the plaister.

The mention of these sepulchral monuments leads us to give some account of the catacombs, as they are called, which are a vast number of subterraneous alleys, or galleries, in the neighbourhood of Rome, that appear to have been antient repositories of the dead, but whether originally dug by the Heathens, or the primitive Christians, has been much disputed by the learned. Each alley, or passage, is about four feet broad, and six or eight feet high, and are not only carried on straight forward to a surprising length, but have others running off every way, like so many lanes or streets of a city. On the sides of these alleys were the niches or graves, wherein the dead bodies were deposited, which were laid lengthwise, three or four rows one over another, parallel to the alley. Each of these graves was just capable of receiving one body, and had its mouth closed with large tiles, and sometimes pieces of marble cemented together in a curious manner. On some few of these tiles is found the name of the deceased person;

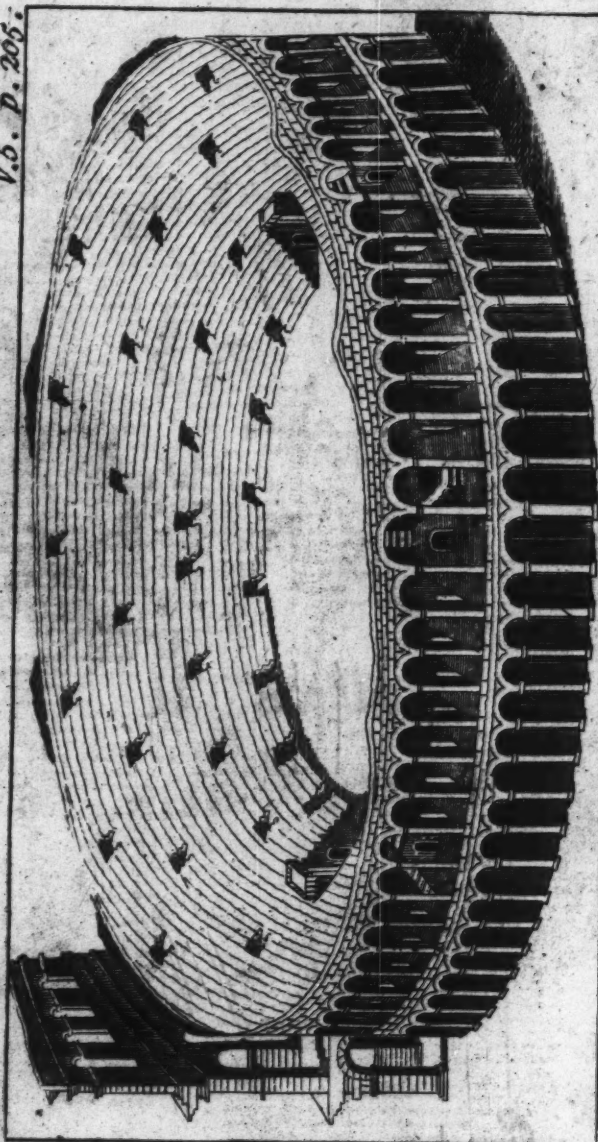
V. 5. p. 204.



The Catavombes at Naples.

Hall & Co.

V.6. p. 205.



The Amphitheatre of Verona

Had. H. Sculp.

son; but frequently a palm tree engraven, or painted. In some places, there are little grottos or chapels, hewn out of the rock, going off from the common gallery, which have niches all round them, and are sometimes adorned with old Mosaic work or painting : these seem to have been the burial-places of particular families.

As to the opinion of the primitive Christians digging these caves, and not only burying their martyrs there in times of persecution, but assembling in them for the performance of divine service, it is highly improbable ; for as it is not to be conceived how they should carry on such a vast work, unknown to their persecuting governors, considering the multitude of hands that must have been employed and the mountains of rubbish brought out of these prodigious caverns, so likewise it is absurd to think they could hold their assemblies amidst the annoyance of so much stench and corruption. It is therefore more reasonable to suppose, with protestant writers in general, that the catacombs were originally the common sepulchres of the ancient Romans, and were not used, after the custom of burning the dead was introduced amongst them, unless for slaves, and the meaner sort of people.

The noble amphitheatre at Verona, is the best preserved of any structure of that kind, the inside of it being still almost entire. It is of an oval figure, having forty-four rows of seats

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of white marble, placed one over another, each being about eighteen inches high, and as much in breadth, so that the whole would conveniently contain 23,000 spectators.

The city of Rimini still shews several monuments of its ancient splendor, particularly a fine marble bridge of five arches, begun by Augustus, and finished by Tiberius. A triumphal arch, built by Augustus, which is likewise of marble, serves at present for one of its gates, though part of it is destroyed. There is also a *suggestum*, looking much like the pedestal of a pillar, from whence Cæsar is said to have harangued his soldiers after he had passed the Rubicon.

But perhaps no part of Italy, except Rome, abounds more with remains of antiquity than the neighbourhood of Puzzuoli and Baia, amongst which are several pillars standing in the bay, in a great depth of water, which are commonly reckoned a part of Caligula's bridge, though some of our most judicious travellers have made it appear they supported the arches of a strong and stately mole, built for the defence and convenience of the harbour. Be this as it will, the work must have been prodigious; as is also the *Piscina mirabilis*, or *Wonderful Fish-pond*, which seems to have been a reservoir of water, supported by eight and forty large pillars, all hewn out of the rock. It is 150 paces long, thirty high, and forty broad, and is laid over with old plaister, now as hard

as stone itself. Some ascribe this work to Nero, though others say it was built by Agrippa, to preserve water for the use of his navy.

The other curiosities in this neighbourhood are the *Centum Camerae*, or *Hundred Chambers*, being a great number of large rooms cut out of a rock, and covered over with plaister; the house and sepulchre of Agrippina, the mother of Nero: the sepulchre of Virgil; the ruins of the seat of Hortensius, of an amphitheatre and a circus; the grottos already described, and many others, on which there is not room to enlarge.

The *Via Appia*, which runs along for about thirty miles, between Rome and Naples, is a noble remain of antiquity. This highway, which was begun in the consulate of Appius Claudius Cæcus, from whom it takes its name, extended quite from Rome to Brundisium, now Brindisi, upwards of three hundred miles, and was more frequented by persons of quality among the ancient Romans, than any other in Italy. It is twelve feet broad, consisting chiefly of blue stones of a cubical form, each side measuring a foot and a half. The strength of this pavement appears from its long duration, for it has now lasted above two thousand years, and is for several miles together as entire as when it was first made.

The *Via Flaminia* was another famous road of this nature, extending northwards from Rome to Rimini. Some remains of it are still to be

seen, but not so entire as the *Via Appia*; from whence it appears to have been paved with broad flints and pebbles, having on each side a border of stone.

Near the city of Cumæ, in Terra di Lavoro in Naples, is a grotto, or cave, in which the famous Cumæan Sybil is said to have delivered her oracles. It is hewn out of a rock, is seven hundred feet long, twenty broad, and about eighteen high; and at the end of this great cave there is a narrow passage two hundred feet in length, and seven in height, which leads to a kind of apartment, consisting of three little rooms, where are still some remains of Mosaic work, and a fountain of clear water, in which the Sybil is supposed to have bathed herself. From hence it is said, the cave ran formerly to Cumæ, which is three miles off; but the passage is now choaked up, by the falling in of the rock in several places. The marks of the chissel are still to be seen in all parts of this grotto.

The subterranean city of Herculaneum, buried under the lava and ashes of mount Vesuvius, now for near seventeen hundred centuries, and discovered at the beginning of the last century, is an object on which the attention of the curious has been fixed for many years.

The most valuable, beyond doubt, of all the monuments of antiquity which are admired there, is the great number of manuscripts on Egyptian paper, blackened, and almost calcined, and
nearly

nearly in the same state as if drawn out of an oven. They have, however, found out the art of unrolling them, and of gluing the leaves on a very thin pellicle; happily they are written but on one side. They are now labouring to transcribe these manuscripts, which it requires only time to do. They will, no doubt, hereafter succeed so far as to interpret them: they are all Greek, and the characters are generally distinct, and read without much difficulty.

Next to the manuscripts, the most striking remains found in this place, are the great number and variety of household utensils, and little family moveables, many of which resemble ours; and it is necessary to remark here, that hardly any but those made of metal would have been able to last so long. Here have been found, among other things of this kind, silver dishes embossed, with their sub-cups in the form of our coffee-dishes. They have found antique drinking-glasses, several of which are of different forms, together with bottles, which alone would prove, that the ancients knew how to found and blow glass; and even that they had a sort of white glass, large enough to make window panes of. One step further, and they had discovered, as well as we, the method of rendering blown glass flat, and of making it into squares; nor would they then have remained destitute of that greatest of modern conveniencies, which we enjoy almost without perceiving it, viz. of those windows and glass doors, which let in day-light to us, at the same

time that they preserve us from all the injuries of the air; which exhibit to us, even in the interior part of our houses, the variegated view of nature, and which transform the winds, the frosts, the tempests, into a magnificent moving picture before our eyes.

The Romans, however, were still far from the art of running glass, and making it into mirrors. There was a necessity, first of bringing the matter and the method of fusing it to such a perfection, as that it should imitate crystal; then to know how to plane and polish this purified glass, before they could think of fixing its transparence by a leaf of tin impregnated with mercury. It appears, that they had not even the art of tinning metals, though they knew extremely well how to apply gold and silver to them. In fact, the statue and horse of Marcus Aurelius, at the capitol, were gilt; a great number of family utensils, the very kitchen furniture found at Herculaneum, is frequently silver, but never tinned over. It is the reverse, with respect to solders; we find none among any pieces of antiquity in silver, but only in tin; and as this kind of solder is weak, we see nothing more of it than the shattered remains.

In this subterraneous city was found lace made of gold wire. It is of pure gold, and wove like cloth. They had not yet so much as set themselves about thinking how to substitute, instead of a gold thread, a thread of silver gilt, which should be as beautiful, light, and of a price

price greatly inferior to the other. For a very strong reason, they had never taken any thoughts about sparing again in the materials, without losing any thing in the outward lustre, by making flat the said thread of silver gilt, and rolling it round a filken thread. The Romans were very far from foreseeing, that the time would come, when an ounce of gold would be sufficient to gild a thread of silver six leagues in length.

Among the great number of rings and precious stones set in signets, found at Herculaneum, it does not appear that they have met with one diamond. Very few diamonds are seen that are antique; without doubt, because they have been retailed upon us by the moderns, as fast as they have discovered them. If some of the passages of Pliny and Isidore give us reason to think, that the antients made use of the fragments of the diamond to engrave on hard stones, and to fashion even the diamond itself, it does not appear, that they had made any great progress in the art of bringing the natural facets, or little superficies, to perfection, of multiplying and of polishing them with their own proper powder. The coloured stones found in Herculaneum are mounted in gold, but very clumsily. Several signets of amethysts have been found here cut in the rounding, to the degree of a drop of tallow on a plane; also some emeralds, some engraven in the stone, others in relief; together with onyxes, cornelians, &c. If we have any superiority

riority over the antients, in the practice of certain arts, it is not at least in that of cutting and fashioning these hard stones: here have been found little vases of rock crystal, the mouth of which is so narrow, that the inside could not have been made hollow as it is, without much industry and patience; and it is doubted, whether, with greater advantages, our workmen would have succeeded better in it. There cannot be any art of more antiquity than this. In the cabinet of Baron Stoch, a celebrated antiquary, at Florence, is a cornelian, fit for setting in a signet, on which are engraved the seven heroes of the antient Theban war, with their names in Greek characters. We know not at present of any precious stone that is engraved of a higher antiquity. It is believed to be of the time of the Trojan war; but the origin of this art is still more ancient. It was common in Egypt before the going out of the Israelites, since they had among them lapidaries, and engravers in fine stones, of which we find a proof in Exodus.



REMARKABLE CUSTOMS.

THE Ecclesiastical day beginning at midnight throughout the whole Christian world, and all the rites of the Roman church being regulated by it, it is somewhat extraordinary, that the civil day should not commence at Rome with the ecclesiastical; and that Italy alone, with

with a remarkable singularity, should differ in point of such common practice from all the rest of Europe. The Italians begin counting the hours, in a series of twenty-four, from the end of the day; a time equivocal, arbitrary, and morally impossible to be determined. This whimsical custom favours strongly of barbarism; and from hence it comes to pass, that at Rome, and almost throughout all Italy, they count every day at noon one hour different from the evening before; and that noon-tide, which they, nevertheless, stand in need of knowing exactly, on account of their ecclesiastical rites, varies more than three hours from winter to summer. At Rome, in the solstice of June, at the hour of noon, the clock strikes sixteen; but in the winter solstice, in December, nineteen. As the length of the day, especially when taken from the twilight of the evening before, to that of the next day, differs from one day to another several minutes, in order to avoid every day meddling with their clocks, they have conceived, that they ought to wait till the differences so accumulated, from day to day, should amount to about fifteen minutes; and that they may act conformably to this regulation, all the clocks of the city make a skip of a quarter of an hour on a day appointed, sometimes at the end of eight days, sometimes at the end of fifteen, and sometimes after an interval of six weeks. For this purpose, a printed almanac informs us, that, from the sixteenth of February, for instance, to the twenty-fourth, it will be noon at a quarter past eighteen, but that on the

the twenty-fourth, it will be noon at eighteen o'clock precisely, and continue so till the sixth of March, &c. That from the first of June till the thirteenth of July, the hour of noon is to be reckoned at sixteen o'clock; on the thirteenth of July, at sixteen and a quarter, and so on through the rest of the months, insomuch, that in the space of a whole year, the time of noon varies from fifteen to eighteen; and that not by an insensible progression from one day to another, but by skipping a quarter of an hour between a fixed day and the day after, at the end of eight or fifteen, and sometimes after an uniform march of forty days.

The emperor in his Tuscan territories, and the infant duke of Parma in his, have cut, within these few years, this gordian knot, by ordaining, that the hours there should be reckoned conformably to the custom universally received throughout the rest of Europe.

Rome, as well as the greatest part of the cities of Italy, has several literary societies, which go under the name of academies. These sometimes hold public assemblies, wherein many pieces in verse are read, particularly sonnets, a kind of poetry, the taste for which has supported itself in Italy, for upwards of these three centuries past.

The city of Venice has several ceremonies and customs peculiar to itself, the most solemn of which, is that observed upon Ascension-Day, when

when the Doge, with the utmost pomp, performs the ceremony of marrying the sea, in the manner following. In the morning, three hundred senators, repairing to the ducal palace in their scarlet robes, accompany the doge, in all his formalities, to the sea-side, where he goes on board his state barge, attended by the pope's nuncio on his right hand, and the patriarch of the city on his left: the senators follow, and being seated in their places, the admiral, who sits at the helm, makes a signal, upon which the music strikes up, and the slaves begin to row the vessel, which appears to dance to the music. The ducal barge is followed by a vast number of other barges and gondolas, all decorated in the richest manner, with the foreign ambassadors, nobility, and gentlemen travellers on board; and being arrived at a small island, about two miles from the city, the doge takes a ring off his finger, and drops it into the sea, repeating the following formula: *D-sponsamus te, Mare, in signum perpetui Dominii, i. e. With this ring we wed thee, O Sea, in token of our perpetual dominion over thee.* This ceremony is no sooner ended, than the barges tack about, and row to the church of St. Nicholas, in a neighbouring island, to hear mass; and from thence return in the same pompous manner to the ducal palace, where the company are magnificently entertained. The solemnity of the day is concluded by a rowing match of all the barges and gondolas that accompanied the doge in the morning. They rendezvous upon the large canal of Murano, where being drawn up,
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in all their splendid decorations, under the sound of trumpets, and other music, they row and jostle one against another, with such force, that many of them turn keel upwards. This whimsical privilege of marrying the sea was granted to this republic by pope Alexander the Third, for their good offices in raising him to the pontifical dignity.



2 AU 58

END of the FIFTH VOLUME.

